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The purpose of the seminar was to explore the problems of programs in criminology and corrections in institutions of higher education. In "Issues for the Seminar" by John J. Galvin, the following are some of the proposals offered for consideration: (1) reaching of some practical agreement concerning categories and responsibility levels of work as related to curricula, (2) realistic assessment of what is possible in the area of employment standards, (3) interaction between universities and the service field, (4) liaison between the university department offering the corrections program and university departments offering related services, (5) massive financial support, and (6) avoidance of policies which would lock out individuals who formerly lacked opportunity to acquire credentials. Other papers include: (1) "Higher Education Programs in Criminology and Corrections" by Loren Karacki and John J. Galvin, (2) "Content of the Curriculum and Its Relevance for Correctional Programs" by Peter P. Lejins, (3) "Universities and the Field of Practice in Corrections" by Vernon B. Fox, and (4) "The Prestige of Corrections Curricula" by T. C. Esselstyn. Discussion from the floor relating to problems of concern to all correction and criminology programs is also reported. (JK)

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CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS

JOINT COMMISSION
ON
CORRECTIONAL MANPOWER
AND TRAINING

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, incorporated in the District of Columbia, consists of nearly a hundred national, international, and regional organizations and public agencies which have joined together to attack one of the serious social problems of our day: How to secure enough trained men and women to bring about the rehabilitation of offenders through our correctional systems and thus prevent further delinquency and crime.

Recognizing the importance of this problem, the Congress in 1965 passed the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act, which authorizes the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration to make grants for a broad study of correctional manpower and training. The Joint Commission is funded under this Act and through grants from private foundations, organizations, and individuals.

Commission publications available:

Differences That Make the Difference, papers of a seminar on implications of cultural differences for corrections. August 1967. 64 pp. Second printing November 1967.

Targets for In-Service Training, papers of a seminar on in-service training. October 1967. 68 pp. Second printing November 1967.

Research in Correctional Rehabilitation, report of a seminar on research in correctional rehabilitation. December 1967. Second printing March 1968. 70 pp.

The Public Looks at Crime and Corrections, report of a public opinion survey. February 1968. Second printing March 1968. 28 pp.

The Future of the Juvenile Court: Implications for Correctional Manpower and Training, consultants' paper. June 1968. 67 pp.

Offenders as a Correctional Manpower Resource, papers of a seminar on the use of offenders in corrections. July 1968. 103 pp.

Criminology and Corrections Programs: A Study of the Issues, report of a seminar. July 1968. 101 pp.

CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS:

A STUDY OF THE ISSUES

Proceedings of a Seminar Convened by the
Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training
Washington, D. C., May 1-2, 1968

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training
1522 K Street, N.W. Washington, D. C. 20005
July 1968

Dedicated to the memory of a noted
leader in collaborative efforts between
corrections and higher education —

JOSEPH D. LOHMAN
Dean, School of Criminology
University of California, Berkeley

1910 - 1968

FOREWORD

The nation's current manpower crisis, particularly the shortage of highly trained people, is closely tied to a crisis in higher education, which is unable to provide enough trained specialists to meet society's needs. The failure to prepare persons for the rehabilitation of public offenders is of special concern to the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training.

The Joint Commission, under the terms of the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act of 1965, is studying the availability and adequacy of educational resources for persons now in the correctional field or preparing to enter it. As a part of this study, the Joint Commission conducted a survey of programs in criminology and corrections in the nation's institutions of higher education.

The report of the survey, which is summarized in this publication, together with the papers that follow it, shows that these programs have a great variety of goals, content, structure, and operation. They offer a wide range of courses and different degrees. They are frequently in competition with other academic programs for status, for students, and for financial support.

To offer an opportunity for program directors to discuss mutual problems, the Commission convened a seminar in Washington, D. C. on May 1 - 2, 1968. As a result of the meeting, an ad hoc committee was formed to plan an association of criminology and corrections programs.

The seminar was the responsibility of Joint Commission staff members John J. Galvin and Loren Karacki.

The Joint Commission expresses its appreciation of the contributions of all participants. Arnold Hopkins, of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance in the U. S. Department of Justice, James Stinchcomb, of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and E. Preston Sharp, General Secretary, American Correctional Association, gave special presentations on the work of their agencies in connection with corrections programs. E. K. Nelson, Jr., of the University of Southern California, gave the participants a preview of the findings of a study of executive development in corrections which he is conducting for the Joint Commission. Special thanks go to Charles Matthews, dean of the Center for Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections at Southern Illinois University, who chaired the seminar.

It is with pleasure that the Joint Commission presents this publication to the universities, the correctional community, and to all persons interested in education which prepares personnel for correctional work.

William T. Adams
Associate Director
Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training

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ISSUES FOR THE SEMINAR

John J. Galvin

Any field that requires college-trained personnel must look to the institutions of higher education as its first line of recruitment. It must have alliances with school officials, departments, individual faculty members. Such alliances must entail mutual understanding as to the manpower requirements and the personnel standards and practices of the field — and as to the relevance of particular courses and forms of study for work in the field.

Corrections today has relatively few safe beachheads on the campus. Professional schools have generally neglected the entire area of criminal justice, including corrections. The "learned disciplines" have long been concerned with building theoretical knowledge which has relevance for the study of crime, but not so much with training practitioners to work in corrections or with studies which might directly guide practice.

Belatedly, correctional administrators and some of their critics have begun to recognize that the university is really a gap in the field's recruitment program rather than a key part of it. And so something of a scramble is on to change the situation. So far, the efforts of corrections to form useful alliances with higher education have produced less than satisfactory results, but the Joint Commission's recent survey, summarized in the following chapter, shows evidence of increased interest on the campus. Over the past two years, in interaction with one another and with representatives of both parties to this projected rapprochement, Joint Commission staff have developed and in some measure documented several assumptions about the present state of affairs and the reasons therefor. These assumptions can be summarized as follows.

1. In general, the university is a formidable institution to be approached by a non-prestigious, non-affluent client such as corrections. This situation is due in part to the university's traditional resistance to any effort to bring a vocational emphasis into undergraduate curriculum building and research, except in the preparation of teachers.
2. An important source of university resistance to involvement in a new field of practice is institutional inertia.
3. The task of forming alliances with the university is particularly difficult for corrections because:
   - a. Corrections requires comparatively small numbers of most of the professionals trained by universities.
   - b. It needs thousands of persons a year for jobs which are seen by many as requiring a college background, but it has achieved no consensus about the specifics of training them.

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c. For years there has been a fairly widespread belief that, to the extent that corrections does have a place in the university, it is the graduate school of social work, but these schools have generally shown no special interest in training for correctional work and they are graduating far too few persons to meet the demand for social work skills in many fields.

4. While the academic community has responded to corrections here and there over the country, development of corrections-related programs has been haphazard and lacking in a common basis of content.

It will perhaps be useful to develop these points a little further and to learn what some members of the academic community have to say on the subject.

Vocational Preparation by the University

In general, it can be said that universities have been reluctant to undertake undergraduate teaching which might be tagged "vocational," but some members of the academic community are taking a different position.

Addressing this issue with reference to undergraduate education for helping services, of which corrections is one, Professor Eugene Koprowski of the University of Colorado, said recently:

> . . . When we talk about building learning experiences around goal setting, systems orientation, and instrumental roles, the distinction between liberal education and vocational training becomes obscure and artificial. For example, in playing the change agent role, an individual will need both concepts and experience in applying what is learned to real life situations. Thus, it's not a question of liberal education vs. vocational training but rather a question of the most appropriate sequencing of educational experiences. The notion that education takes place in a classroom and training takes place in the "real world" is somewhat arbitrary. If curriculum-planning were more closely tied to learning and motivational theory, it is altogether possible that an individual would spend six months [on a job] in a helping service agency before even entering a classroom. This exposure to the "real world" could be repeated several times during an individual's period of formal learning. In this way concepts could be tested against reality, modified when necessary, and grow out of personal experience.[1]

Universities are not truly anti- or non-vocationally oriented, of course. This may be a myth of some importance in the liberal arts college, but the university comprises colleges, schools, and departments for a host of established and aspiring professions and technical occupations. With rare exceptions, however, such university programs are in fields characterized by affluence and prestige or in public service fields in which there are very large-scale public expenditures that reflect widespread public concern, effective political activity, or both. Most of the more prestigious of these programs are at the graduate level, but many are undergraduate programs.

Institutional Inertia

Another major source of resistance by the university to evangelization by a new field of practice is institutional inertia. The decision-making process on most campuses is such that any change must be arrived at slowly and tortuously; changes seen as drastic may be almost unthinkable on some campuses. Christopher Jencks has written:

> The inadequacies of the curriculum are, I think, a direct reflection of the paralysis of faculty government. At most universities, the faculty is too big to do anything efficiently and too conservative to let individual faculty members decide things for themselves. The Byzantine irrelevance of faculty politics cannot help but be mirrored in the curriculum. Men cling to lectures, examinations, credit hours, prerequisites, and the like not because they are good for the students but because they provide an excellent framework for adjudicating the competing interests of individual professors and departments. What usually passes for curriculum "reform" usually serves a political rather than a pedagogic purpose.[2]

Similar views were expressed by G. Lester Anderson, professor of education at the State University of New York at Buffalo, during a correctional manpower institute held in Atlanta in November 1966. His paper, which treats in some depth the issues inherent in corrections-university relationships, is contained in a report of the institute.[3]

Corrections' Difficulties in Approaching Universities

The difficulties faced by corrections in approaching the university for help in preparing personnel are compounded by its employment patterns.

Corrections requires, in scattered localities, comparatively small numbers of most of the kinds of workers who are trained in universities — teachers, doctors in several specialties, psychologists, social workers, lawyers, counselors, business administrators, nutritionists, nurses, medical technicians, librarians, social researchers, recreation leaders, and many others. Thus ideally corrections should have lines into most schools and departments of a very great many colleges and universities across the country. This would be a tremendous undertaking for a field which is relatively restricted in numbers and in funding.

In addition, corrections needs thousands of persons a year for jobs which many people believe require college background, but there is little agreement among leaders in corrections about the specific training such employees need. Included are such jobs as probation and parole officers and institutions classification personnel and caseworkers whose critical importance for corrections is obvious. But because there is no consensus as to the proper qualifications for such jobs, a college curriculum to prepare people for them has no natural home on the campus. Nor has it been possible to mount a concerted national effort to create new schools affiliated with universities, as occurred in the cases of medicine, law, social work, and other generally recognized professions.

There is a view that corrections should not opt for a specialized curriculum, at least at the undergraduate level, but should join forces with other helping services in seeking the collaboration of higher education institutions. Referring to undergraduate programs, Professor Kenneth Polk, of the University of Oregon, expressed it this way:

> . . . programs for helping professions at an undergraduate level do not require a specialized focus. We do not need individualized programs in the areas of social work, counseling, corrections, vocational rehabilitation, to name but a few. Individuals being prepared for many of these fields would benefit by a multidisciplinary program that shares the talents and experiences available in these areas. The field work experience of students can be organized to provide whatever specialized training the individual requires, while other field work and academic experiences can provide needed exposure to other professions.[4]

Expositions of issues and possibilities in such baccalaureate programs are presented in the paper by Koprowski quoted above and one by Professor Herbert Bisno of the University of Oregon.[5]

Related to this educational approach is the undergraduate social welfare program proposed in recent years by some social work educators and professional leaders and developed in some colleges and universities. An extensive survey of such programs shows that they are producing about as many people for jobs in the helping services as are produced by graduate schools of social work. Some correctional leaders and criminologists object to these programs as producing people who are regarded by graduate-trained social workers as second-class practitioners. Such critics state also that these programs are really designed more to screen and recruit for graduate professional schools than to meet manpower needs by preparing capable practitioners at the bachelor's degree level. This objection is not fully supported by survey findings that only 18 percent of graduates in the academic year 1965-66 went on to graduate social work schools and that 46 percent went immediately into social service jobs.[6]

It is possible, of course, to question the relevance of higher education for the great bulk of work done in the corrections field. When the tasks are broken down into their details, many become rather commonplace chores which can be learned readily by persons without extensive education.

This view does not deal with several important issues. It ignores the increasing extent to which the campus is coming to be the recruitment arena for the kinds of people corrections must compete for in sizeable numbers, even if it does use many personnel without college background. Moreover, this view does not deal satisfactorily with corrections' need for practical links with sources of theoretical knowledge and expertise in research, training, program design, and other complex tasks. Nor, conversely, does it recognize the university's need for ready access to a field of public service which is replete with moral and intellectual challenge in a democratic society. Something of an in-between approach — or better, a suggested resolution of the existing break between theoreticians and correctional workers who perform more routine tasks — is Donald Cressey's concept of an arrangement following the manpower model of the space industry, with its division of labor among policy-makers, theoreticians, engineers, and technicians.[7]

In both corrections and the academic community there has long been a fairly widespread belief that, if corrections has a place in the university at all, it is in the graduate school of social work. But, with a few notable exceptions, schools of social work have not made a special point of trying to recruit or train people for the correctional field. Moreover, these schools are graduating only a fraction of the number of workers for which a need is presumed to exist, and the demand for their services is far larger in other fields than in corrections. (This fact, incidentally, leads schools to prepare people for roles which many consider of limited utility in the correctional field.) Schools of social work are a source of a few persons to fill specialized roles in corrections, but they can never, in the foreseeable future, be a primary source of supply for the thousands of case-management jobs and group-work jobs in the field. Until this reality is fully understood by all concerned, there will continue to be a block to clear thinking and realistic planning about correctional manpower needs and resources.

In a sense "corrections" really cannot approach "the university." Neither is a monolith. In its present fragmented state, corrections is almost impotent to agree on anything or act in concert.

Disagreements among Programs Preparing for Correctional Work

In a number of places the academic community has reached out or responded to corrections. This appears to have come about most often because of the special interest and initiative of a faculty member. In a few instances correctional administrators were successful in persuading college or university administrations to make provision for corrections-related programs. In general, however, the process could be described as willy-nilly — partly because of the haphazard way in which programs have originated but also because of the lack of consensus about the training required for correctional work. The result is seen in the findings of our survey of corrections-oriented degree programs. There is no evidence of sureness of any general agreement as to such issues as:

. . . Where, within the educational institution, such a curriculum belongs.

. . . What level of education we are talking about, with current programs ranging from A.A. to Ph.D. level.

. . . Whether both skill and theory should be taught.

. . . What specific courses in what fields or disciplines should be included or recommended as electives; what proportion of course work should be specifically related to corrections; and what areas of knowledge and kinds of skills should be included.

. . . What provisions should be made for practical exposure to the field and skill training in practice settings.

. . . Just what it is that students are being prepared for — that is, what kinds of jobs in what types of settings; whether different levels of education among curricula reflect differences in training goals or simply differences in the biases or interests of faculty members (or availability of faculty and other resources); what barriers to employment graduates of these programs are likely to encounter.

Issues Dividing Educators

Course descriptions in catalogs and consultation with faculty reflect key issues which tend to divide educators involved in programs offering degrees or specializations in corrections or criminology.

A major division is between those concerned primarily if not exclusively with training Ph.D. candidates and those identified with terminal degree programs at either the bachelor or master's level. The former are more likely to de-emphasize corrections, seeing it as simply a segment of the total criminal justice process. Moreover, they are much concerned with scholarship — research, development of college teachers, publication of criminological books and papers. In the action area they see their roles and those of their graduates more as influencers of public policy or high-level change agents than as persons performing or concerned with the more ordinary day-to-day correctional tasks.

Programs offering bachelor's or master's degrees are, generally speaking, engaged in preparing practitioners for the field, while also recruiting at least occasional students for more advanced study. A problem of central interest here is the lack of clear distinction in purposes, content, and teaching methods as between baccalaureate and master's level programs. Some differences showed up in our survey, but they are by no means clear-cut. This issue probably rests more on manpower utilization and recruitment practices in the field than on anything else. So long as the field does not have definite provision for the effective utilization of the newly graduated B.A., educational programs at this level will tend to be exercises in futility.

The facts that corrections has long been an eclectic field and criminology a multi-disciplinary study are reflected in the miscellany of auspices for corrections/criminology programs in universities. Seven "host departments" for such programs were identified in the survey in terms of content identity: criminal justice, criminology, corrections, police science, public administration, social welfare, sociology. Organizationally, some programs are located in special centers, separate colleges, schools, departments, and divisions, but most are within departments of colleges of liberal arts or are themselves separate departments.

Differences in auspices are reflected in differing kinds of course offerings — with administration, political science, economics, and law being stressed more than psychological approaches, but practice-oriented courses often seem rooted in the traditions and tenets of professions based more on individual psychology.

Proposals Offered for Consideration

Our concern here is with discovering policies and lines of action which promise to reduce the present confusion and uncertainty and bring about a level of adequacy in the treatment of corrections in institutions of higher education. Some proposals of this nature are summarized here for consideration during the seminar.

1. It is essential and urgent that corrections reach some practical agreement concerning categories and responsibility levels of work and relate it to kinds of knowledge and skill requirements which can be translated into educational curricula at appropriate levels. The Joint Commission staff's task analysis project will lay the groundwork for detailed proposals of this nature. The principle at issue here is that qualifications be realistically based on agency-determined tasks essential to meeting the needs of offenders, not on the unquestioned traditions of particular occupational specialties or learned disciplines. This principle was a central point at the conference on manpower and training for corrections held at Arden House in 1965. Correspondence and conversation with interested persons since that time indicate that it has substantial support among leaders in both education and corrections.

2. Any standards agreed on must rest solidly on a realistic assessment of manpower pools and manpower trends and of what is possible for corrections in the area of personnel practices. For example, it should now be clear to any reader of manpower studies by the Labor Department and other agencies that a master's degree is an unrealistic requirement for most of the entry-level jobs in corrections.

3. It is for the universities to decide just how corrections-related educational programs will be provided and what will be the specifics of the curricula, requirements for degrees, etc. But all planning should entail close interaction with representatives of the field. A mechanism needs to be created to serve this purpose at the national level, with provisions for regional, state, and local liaison consistent with national manpower policies.

In decrying the current diffuse state of affairs, it is not the staff's contention that there is a "right" program with a "right" course sequence and degree. On the contrary, legitimate differences do exist in program philosophy, purpose, and content which necessarily require different course and degree emphases. It does appear, however, that much can be gained by an ongoing analysis of program differences and the factors which account for them. In view of the rather sporadic manner in which these programs have developed, it is difficult to believe that there is not a great deal which needs modification and revision. Out of such activity can begin to emerge some elements of standardization. Until this is achieved, it is not likely the criminology/corrections programs can become a major voice in corrections.

4. The programs themselves should entail close and continuing interaction with the field — through field work, field research, work-study arrangements, continuing education arrangements, faculty-agency exchanges and joint appointments, and the like.

5. Absolutely essential is the elimination of archaic or artificial barriers to employment of graduates or to internships, summer work, or part-time work by students.

6. In addition to the selection and preparation of students for generic correctional roles, the school or department offering such a program should provide other corrections-related services — such as liaison with schools and departments training various professional specialists whose services are required in corrections (e.g., lawyers, doctors, teachers, social science researchers, social workers). Such services should secure visibility for corrections in these departments and opportunities for at least some of their students to have course work and field experiences and carry on research in corrections.

7. An essential provision must be for massive financial support of any higher education programs designed to recruit and prepare students for corrections. This must include funds for faculty positions, student stipends, subsidization of educational leave, and any other feature of the total program which calls for expenditure of funds by agencies or universities. Support must be of a long-term variety, not just the funding of "innovations" or demonstrations, and it should be integral to a national manpower program to improve the helping services.

8. Planning must entail the development of people for faculty positions. One important source is the experienced practitioner who has the aptitude but may lack the credentials to be secure on the academic scene. Well-financed fellowships to provide graduate training for such candidates will be needed. At the same time, subsidy programs and modifications in personnel practices are needed to encourage some professors to leave the campus for substantial periods in order to acquire practical field experience.

9. As plans are developed and implemented to augment and improve higher education's capacity to train correctional manpower, every effort should be made to avoid the emergence of rigid policies which lock out people capable of making significant contributions in the field but lacking in past opportunities to acquire credentials. Requirements

for entry jobs and for promotions should be realistically set. Ample opportunities should be provided for advancement through experience, training, work-study, and educational leave arrangements.

10. There must be concern for the future growth and mobility of students. Preparation which is narrow and specific may produce useful technicians for today but ignore the need for broadly educated men and women who will be effective change agents and the correctional leaders of tomorrow.

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[1] Eugene J. Koprowski, "A Dynamic Role-Centered Approach for Developing A Generic Baccalaureate Curriculum in the Helping Services" in *Undergraduate Education and Manpower Utilization* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1967), p. 8.

[2] Christopher Jencks, "A New Breed of B.A.'s: Some Alternatives to Boredom and Unrest," *The New Republic,* CLIII (Oct. 23, 1965), 19.

[3] *Manpower for Correctional Rehabilitation in the South* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1967), pp. 17-27.

[4] Kenneth Polk, "Innovations in Undergraduate Education for the Helping Services" in *Selected Papers From Two Institutes on Undergraduate Education for the Helping Services* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1965), p. 61.

[5] Herbert Bisno, "Projections of Curricular Trends" in *Undergraduate Education and Manpower Utilization in the Helping Services,* pp. 13-23.

[6] Sherman Merle, *Survey of Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967), p. x.

[7] Donald R. Cressey, remarks on a paper by John Conrad prepared for the Arden House Conference in *Manpower and Training for Corrections,* Charles Prigmore, ed. (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1966), pp. 57-58.

HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS

Report of a Survey

Loren Karacki and John J. Galvin

As part of its responsibility to determine the availability and adequacy of educational and training resources for persons entering correctional work, the Joint Commission conducted a survey of degree-granting programs in the field of criminology and corrections as they operated in the academic year 1967-68. The object was to obtain a factual accounting of these programs regarding such matters as their number and location, the types of academic awards granted, the course work provided, enrollments, and the number of students receiving degrees. In addition, respondents were asked for their impressions of some of the central issues confronting these programs, such as their acceptance by correctional administrators and by other units of the university. This report is primarily intended to present the findings of the survey; only a limited effort is made to draw upon their implications.

Methodology

Relying upon a variety of information sources,[1] 101 colleges and universities were identified as possibly having degree-granting programs in criminology and corrections. (The colleges and universities are listed at the end of this paper.) Survey questionnaires were mailed to the appropriate academic department or, if this was unknown, to the university or college president. The initial mailing date was November 30, 1967, with follow-up letters sent between late December and mid-January. The cutoff date for receipt of completed questionnaires was March 15, 1968, and no questionnaires arriving after that date are included in the analysis.

Responses were received from 83 schools, of which 20 were eliminated from the survey for various reasons, primarily because no courses in criminology or corrections were indicated.[2] The 63 which remained were divided into three categories: "established" programs, "new" programs, and "non-degree" programs.

No assurance can be given that the procedure described successfully identified all programs that properly fall within the scope of the survey, especially in view of constantly changing developments in the field. It

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can be said with confidence, however, that the vast majority of degree-granting programs operating in the academic year 1967-68 were contacted and that all major programs are included.

As used throughout the report, "established" programs are those programs offering a formally approved specialization or degree in criminology or corrections which had been in existence long enough to have graduated students from the program. "New" programs are those offering a formally recognized specialization or degree in criminology or corrections which had not existed long enough to have graduated students or, if they had, had graduated students in numbers far short of their intended capacity. The newness of these programs is indicated by the fact that several existed on paper only at this point. They are separated here from "established" programs because they provide some suggestion of trends and because their inclusion with "established" programs would distort many of the survey findings. The last category, "non-degree" programs, refers to those academic departments surveyed which offered only course work in criminology and corrections, without a specialization or special degree. To be included, it was only necessary that one course be given, although most departments reported offering more.

It should be mentioned that, in reviewing survey returns, it occasionally was very difficult to determine whether a program qualified as an "established" or "new" one, or even if it qualified at all. While questionnaire items were intended to allow for these distinctions, the inability of many respondents to provide information for all questions and the ambiguity inherent in many questions asked left considerable room for interpretation and resulted in the assignment of some programs to a status different from what was indicated by the questionnaire response. Generally, changes of this sort were in the direction of increasing the number of "non-degree" programs. It is hoped that the changes have enhanced the value of the survey by making more valid the distinctions between program types.

Of the 63 programs which are the subject of this report, 33 were categorized as "established" programs, 10 as "new" programs, and 20 as "non-degree" programs. Four "established" programs were located in the East, four in the South, nine in the Midwest, and 16 in the West.[3] Among "new" programs, three were in the East, three in the South, three in the Midwest, and one in the West.[4]

For purposes of analysis, the 33 "established" programs have been divided according to the academic departments in which they were housed, with four coming under criminology departments, 21 under sociology departments, and eight under other departments.[5]

Major characteristics of the 63 programs are shown in the summary table which follows. Details are given in the numbered tables referred to in the following paragraphs, which appear in the appendix of this publication.

Number of schools with criminology/corrections programs and enrollments in programs, academic year 1967-68; and degrees granted, academic year 1966-67

Program status and department	Number of schools	Course enrollments [1/]		Degrees granted	
		Under-graduate	Graduate	Under-graduate	Graduate
Total	63	12,279	1,262	640	89
Established	33	9,413	1,006	619	88
Criminology	4	1,379	227	211	35
Sociology	21	5,642	411	310	40
Other	8	2,392	368	98	13
New	10	1,168	54	21	1
Non-degree	20	1,698	202	–	–

[1/] Course enrollment figures may count the same student more than once.

Academic Levels and Emphasis of Programs

Table 1 shows the types of awards granted in programs of criminology and corrections, by program status and department. Besides noting the many combinations of degrees and specializations reported by respondents – which is indicative of the divergent forms these programs take – two additional observations are relevant. The first concerns the academic level at which these programs operated. Most "established" programs offered specialization or degrees at both the undergraduate and graduate level, but this was not the case for most "new" programs. Twenty-four of the 33 "established" programs operated at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, while only two of the 10 "new" programs were offered at both the undergraduate and graduate level.[6] While possibly signifying a new pattern for programs of criminology and corrections, this distinction is probably due more to the relatively short lifetime of "new" programs, since it would be expected that at least a few of them would expand their operations as they became established and in the process would begin to function at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.

The second comment has to do with the practice of "established" programs in departments of sociology to offer only specialization in criminology and corrections, rather than special degrees. The close historical and intellectual connection between the study of criminology and corrections on the one hand and sociology on the other is already confirmed by the concentration of these programs in departments of sociology. That these programs continue to maintain close ties with the parent departments would seem to be indicated by the finding that 15 of the 21 such programs offered only a specialization in criminology and corrections. Indeed, in examining the survey information gathered on criminology and corrections programs, it appears that in general, those which exist within departments of sociology can best be understood when the basic service these programs provide the parent department is kept in mind; namely, that of providing course selections for undergraduate and graduate students majoring in sociology and others interested in obtaining some background in social science. One finds, for example, that these programs tend to have rather large course enrollments but relatively few students who have graduated with an actual specialization in criminology and corrections. This finding and others call attention to the relationship of these programs in sociology to the parent department.

In contrast, 10 of the 12 "established" programs in criminology or "other" departments offered special degrees in criminology and corrections. Related to this, there is some suggestion that these programs were more clearly geared to the needs of students seeking a special degree rather than to those of a broader cross-section of the student body.

The distinction drawn between criminology and corrections programs in departments of sociology and in other departments is hardly surprising to anyone intimately familiar with these programs. What may be of greater significance, is the finding that among the 10 "new" programs identified by the survey, only three were in departments of sociology and social work and five in other departments.[7] This may provide an indication of the trend for the future.

In addition to the types of awards granted by programs of criminology and corrections, an effort was also made to determine the kind of correctional preparation these programs offered. This was done by asking respondents to indicate in rank order the fields in which their students were best prepared from among the following selections: probation, parole, institution custody, institution treatment, administration, research, and college or university teaching. The responses are presented in Table 2. (It should be noted that the format for Table 2 and most of the tables which follow is identical to that of Table 1 with the exception that "established" programs have additionally been divided into those operating at the undergraduate or graduate levels only or at both levels.)

As shown in Table 2, among the 40 persons responding to the question, 18, or nearly half, indicated that their students were best prepared for probation work, six said institutional custody, five administration, four institutional treatment, three research, three teaching, and one parole work. The lone mention of parole work is somewhat misleading, since respondents citing probation first commonly selected parole work as the area of second-best preparation. All three choices for college teaching were programs in departments of sociology, while three of the five selections for administration were in the other-department category.

Enrollments, Course Hours, Graduations

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of course hours given in criminology and corrections, the enrollment in these courses, and the number of students who graduated during academic year 1966-67 with a concentration in criminology or corrections.[8]

The number of course hours in criminology and corrections at both the undergraduate and graduate levels is given in Table 3. The mode at both levels is 12-23 hours. Assuming three credit hours per course,[9] this would indicate that these programs often consist of a core curriculum of four to seven courses at the undergraduate level, or as the case may be, at both undergraduate and graduate levels. The figure is much higher for programs in departments of criminology than for those in sociology or other departments.

Catalogues, bulletins, and other written materials were obtained from the schools and departments involved on the assumption that course offerings could then be identified. Their review, however, proved to be something of a disappointment, since the published materials often did not contain specific reference to criminology and corrections programs, thus complicating the task of course identification. Nonetheless, it is evident that a wide range of courses is offered as part of criminology and corrections sequences. At the undergraduate level it was possible to identify over 200 different course titles; at the graduate level, the number was more than 100. Not unexpectedly, when course titles are classified into general subject areas, criminology and corrections are the two areas having greatest course concentration, with 94 and 63 courses, respectively, falling into these categories. However, courses were also offered in law and the administration of justice (36), public administration (20), social welfare/social work (12), research methods and issues (17), correctional treatment techniques (16), and the various behavioral sciences (41).

Table 4 presents information on student enrollment in courses of criminology and corrections. It shows that the total undergraduate course enrollment was in excess of 12,000 and that the graduate course enrollment exceeded 1,200. The greatest concentration of course enrollment was found in "established" programs in departments of sociology, which had over 5,500 undergraduate and 400 graduate enrollees. These figures undoubtedly exaggerate the actual number of students involved, since many students will have enrolled for more than one course[10]; this notwithstanding, the figures are impressive and point to the popularity of criminology and corrections courses among the student body at many schools.

There is an appreciable drop in numbers when students who graduated during 1966-67 with a criminology or corrections concentration are considered. As Table 5 shows, 640 undergraduates and 89 graduate students were reported as having graduated from "established" or "new" programs. By department, among "established" programs, degrees were awarded to 211 undergraduate and 35 graduate students in criminology, 310 undergraduates and 40 graduate students in sociology, and 98 undergraduates and 13 graduate students in other departments. Since not all respondents were able to supply this information, the figures may be somewhat low; however, they are assumed to be reasonably accurate.

When the number of degree recipients in criminology and sociology departments is compared with the course enrollments in these departments, programs located in sociology departments are found to have proportionally far more course enrollees than graduates at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Stated in the form of a ratio, for every undergraduate degree recipient in corrections-criminology programs in sociology departments, there were 18.2 course enrollees, while in criminology departments the ratio was one graduate for every 6.5 enrollees. Similarly, at the graduate level, the ratio for sociology departments was one graduate per 10.3 course enrollees, but for criminology departments one graduate for only 6.5 enrollees. While several factors may account for this difference, certainly one possible explanation, as mentioned earlier, is that these programs in departments of sociology generally are intended to serve a much broader cross-section of the student body than those in criminology departments.[11]

Field Experience

Information was also obtained on the kind of field experience provided students in criminology and corrections. Data on field experience are presented in Table 6, while Table 7 shows the agencies and facilities used for this purpose.

Referring to Table 6, the most frequent type of field experience provided at the undergraduate level was tours and visits (3,355), followed by placements during the academic year (456), summer field placements (310), work-study assignments (82), and internships (36). Tours and visits and school-year placements were especially favored by programs in departments of sociology. Programs in criminology and other departments, in turn, placed relatively greater emphasis on summer field placements and work-study arrangements.

At the graduate school level, the ordering of types of field experience by frequency is similar to the undergraduate level except that work-study arrangements (27) were somewhat more common than summer field placements (19). In contrast with the undergraduate level, placements during the academic year were far more frequently used than work-study in criminology departments, while few field experiences were reported by other departments.

In Table 7, the various agencies and facilities used for field experience are indicated. As would be expected, relatively greater use was made of probation and parole facilities and correctional institutions than halfway houses and courts.

Financial Support for Students

Financial support provided students in corrections and criminology is shown in Table 8. A total of 96 fellowships, 25 stipends, 98 assistantships, 84 work-study assignments, and 45 "other" forms of support were reported by respondents. By source, federal funds were used in 168 cases, state funds in 123 cases, and other funds in 57 cases.

Rather than comparing the number of students receiving financial support with the *total enrollment* in criminology and corrections programs, as is done in Table 8, a better comparison would have been with the number of students *currently concentrating* in criminology and corrections. Unfortunately, this information is not available and, in its absence, it is difficult to assess fully the significance of the figures on financial support. However, if the respondents themselves are to provide the basis for judgment, the support indicated would seem to fall far short of the level desired. At least it can be said that when respondents were asked how correctional agencies could best assist programs of criminology and corrections, a frequent response was: through some form of financial aid for students. As it was, only 44 students in nine programs were reported to be receiving financial aid directly from correctional agencies.

The problem of obtaining financial support for students in criminology and corrections was seen as especially acute by several respondents in view of the assistance now received by students entering social work [12] or vocational rehabilitation [13] programs. As one respondent put it, unless greater federal assistance is provided students in criminology and corrections, social work and vocational rehabilitation would eventually preempt the field of corrections.

In this general context, it is perhaps noteworthy that programs in departments of criminology reported more students receiving financial support than those in departments of sociology, apparently because criminology departments have been more successful in obtaining federal assistance. Of the 133 students receiving financial support in departments of criminology, 66 had federal funds. Among programs in sociology, only 37 of the 109 students receiving assistance had federal support.

Work Experience and Career Interests of Students

Respondents were asked to indicate the percentage of students in criminology or corrections programs with prior work experience in the field and the percentage with a career interest in corrections. While many commented that their answer would depend upon whether they were talking about undergraduate or graduate students — a choice which was not provided them — it may still be informative to consider the responses. As shown in Table 9, only nine respondents indicated that 25 percent or more of their students had prior work experience in corrections, but 26 indicated that 25 percent or more had career interests in the field. It is apparent that only when programs at both the undergraduate and graduate levels are examined does one find programs with over a quarter of their students having had prior work experience in corrections. No such distinction exists when career interests are considered, however, since three of the eight undergraduate programs indicated that 25 percent or more of their students had career interests in corrections.

Faculty

Another area of inquiry was the number of faculty involved in teaching criminology and corrections courses and the kind of faculty involvement in off-campus correctional activities. Table 10 shows that a total of 188 full-time and 91 part-time faculty were reported as teaching criminology and corrections courses. It is interesting to note that programs in departments of criminology and other departments made much greater use of part-time personnel than did programs in departments of sociology, and that this pattern is repeated among "new" programs. While there were four times as many full-time faculty in programs in sociology departments as there were part-time faculty, the ratio was much closer to one-to-one in departments of criminology and other departments as well as in "new" programs.

There appeared to be generally wide involvement of faculty in off-campus correctional activities. Research projects were the most frequently cited activities, followed in order by consultation, in-service training, extension work, civil service examination boards, part-time employment, and parole or probation board membership.

Employment of Graduates

An item of vital importance to the Joint Commission is the employment obtained by graduates of criminology and corrections programs. For those able to supply this information, Table 11 reports the responses for undergraduate degree recipients and Table 12 for graduate degree recipients. As shown in Table 11, of the 477 graduates reported on, 130 went into probation or parole work, 57 into institutional treatment work, 42 into institutional custody, one into administration, three into research, six into teaching; 238 were either unknown or listed as "other." When the latter 238 are eliminated, on a percentage basis, 54.4 percent entered probation or parole work, 23.8 percent entered institutional treatment work, 17.6 percent went into institutional custody, and 4.2 percent entered either administration, research, or teaching.

Among graduate degree recipients, as shown in Table 12, of the 66 reported on, 16 entered probation or parole work; 16, teaching; seven, institutional treatment; four, institutional custody; five, administration; five, research; while 13 were classified as "other or unknown." Eliminating the "other or unknown" category, by percentage, 30.2 percent entered probation or parole work; 13.2 percent, institutional treatment work; 7.5 percent, institutional custody; 9.4 percent, administration; 9.4 percent, research; and 30.2 percent, teaching.

When the percentage figures for graduate degree recipients are compared with those for holders of undergraduate degrees, it is evident that a major shift occurs from probation, parole, and institutional positions to the more specialized positions of administration, research, and teaching. Among those with undergraduate degrees, 95.8 percent entered probation, parole or institution positions while only 4.2 percent became administrators, researchers, or teachers. In contrast, just under half of the graduate degree holders reported on entered administration, research or teaching.

The shift away from probation and parole work at the graduate level is especially striking in view of the importance frequently attached to graduate degrees for this kind of work.[14] Both in absolute and relative terms, it is apparent that graduate programs in criminology and corrections are not producing many people who are entering probation and parole work, while those at the undergraduate level are. Yet the preference for hiring appears to run counter to this pattern as graduate degrees continue to receive strong endorsement for probation and parole work.

At least with respect to criminology and corrections programs, the wisdom of emphasizing graduate degrees for probation and parole work would seem open to question. In the first place, it is unlikely that graduate degree holders from criminology and corrections programs will be attracted to probation and parole work in greater numbers as long as there is a continuing demand for persons to fill positions in administration, research, and teaching. Secondly, among those programs which do attempt to prepare students for probation and parole work, it appears that the impact of requirements for graduate degrees has already begun to be felt. Thus, when respondents were asked to identify the most difficult factor confronting their graduates when seeking employment in corrections, as shown in Table 13, of the 15 whose programs were classified as emphasizing probation and parole,[15] four said requirements for advanced degrees were the most difficult factor, while two others gave closely related responses. Significantly, this was not a problem among programs with different emphases. It may well be, therefore, that the net effect of greater emphasis upon graduate degrees in probation and parole work may be to undermine those programs which now seek to satisfy the manpower demand in this area.

Table 14 also presents data on factors seen as affecting the employment chances of criminology and corrections program graduates, except that the comparison is again by program status, department, and level. Including "non-degree" programs, the most frequently first-mentioned factor was lack of experience (with nine choices), closely followed by civil services exams (cited first by eight respondents). The fact that six of the eight who cited civil service exams were from California and the remaining two were from Illinois indicates the extent to which these programs attempt to place graduates. Those emphasizing lack of experience, on the other hand, were apt to be programs preparing students for administrative or university work, as reference back to Table 13 will show. Consequently, among programs more directly concerned with preparing graduates for probation, parole, and institutional work, requirements for advanced degrees and age loom as fairly important factors, since they were ranked first five and four times respectively.

Prestige of Programs among Correctional Administrators

A final section of the questionnaire was designed to measure more subjective elements regarding programs of criminology and corrections. Respondents were asked a series of close-ended opinion questions and then were encouraged to expand upon their responses. In this way, it was hoped that a partial assessment of programs of criminology and corrections as seen by program directors themselves would emerge. In the following paragraphs, the quantitative responses are presented and an attempt made briefly to summarize the written comments.

Respondents were asked to indicate how they thought correctional administrators viewed their programs and how prestigious employment in criminology and corrections was to the student body and the faculty at their schools. As is shown in Table 15, they generally thought that programs of criminology and corrections were viewed with favor by correctional administrators. Among those responding, 21 thought correctional administrators' views of their programs were very positive, 21 somewhat positive, five neutral or indifferent. Only three said negative.

Despite the generally positive attitudes attributed to correctional administrators, in their expanded remarks many respondents preferred to comment on why corrections and criminology programs had not gained total acceptance rather than to account for the acceptance which had been received. For the most part, this was attributed to the presence of three kinds of administrators: (1) political appointees and other poorly qualified administrators who see these programs as posing a personal threat; (2) custodially minded administrators who fear graduates of these programs would "rock the boat"; and (3) practical-minded administrators who suspect that the training in these programs tends toward the impractical. Other reasons mentioned included the preference of some administrators for persons trained in other disciplines and the failure of other administrators to understand the objectives of these programs. A measure of self-criticism was introduced by one respondent, who asserted that part of the problem of gaining acceptance was that in the past some criminology and corrections program heads and their graduates have been too brash in their actions and too disparaging toward experience gained in the field.

Among respondents commenting as to why criminology and corrections programs were positively viewed by administrators, the most frequent response simply was to point out how their programs are helping to satisfy the need which exists in corrections for new staff and for upgrading present staff. Several chose to cast this within a broader framework by alluding to what one called the "strain toward professionalism" occurring within corrections in many areas.

Another tack was to mention the specific value of graduates of criminology and corrections programs. This was done by one respondent who said the products of these programs had a "healthy attitude" toward offenders and rehabilitation, and by several who stressed the ability of their graduates to serve as innovators in the field. One even implied that it was a status symbol in some agencies to have a criminology and corrections graduate on the staff. A few respondents said in effect that they had been able to "sell" their program by conveying their appreciation for the problems of the administrator and their sincere desire to find solutions.

As a final note, several respondents commented that they had detected a marked improvement in the attitude of correctional administrators over the years toward criminology and corrections programs and hinted that corrections today perhaps was at a threshold. As one put it:

> There is a definite trend toward greater willingness [of correctional administrators] to enter into an active relationship with universities which are genuinely interested in the correctional field. However, there still is a lingering suspicion. Furthermore, neither party is certain of the best mode for developing a long-term relationship supportive of an effective pursuit of common interests.

Status of Programs and Correctional Careers

While the attitude of correctional administrators toward criminology and corrections programs, in the estimation of respondents, was generally believed to be quite favorable, the same could not be said for corrections as a career as seen by the student body and the faculty. As is presented in Table 15, only three respondents thought employment in corrections and criminology was regarded as very prestigious by the student body, while 21 said it was viewed as somewhat prestigious and 21 said not prestigious. In the case of faculty, three respondents guessed very prestigious, while 18 said somewhat prestigious and 24 said not prestigious.

Those who indicated that they thought correctional work lacked prestige frequently said that the student body and faculty simply did not have an adequate knowledge of the field and its potential. Several went on to comment that, in the case of students, their ignorance could be traced to the failure of high school counselors to provide information on opportunities in the field. Other respondents asserted that the low regard for corrections on campus was no more than a reflection of the attitude of society in general toward this line of work, a condition which several saw as perpetuated by an unfavorable press. A third type of response was to mention the close and unfavorable association of corrections with other lines of work. Several, for example, said corrections to many was "cop" work. One mentioned a negative association with social work, although several others saw this as a strength.

A final response was to point to actual conditions in the field such as poor pay, poor working conditions, and political favoritism. In the words of one respondent:

> In ————————, the state of the field of corrections is indicated best, perhaps, by the fact that correctional workers in the state's major "treatment" center are paid wages which qualify them for federal poverty programs. The caliber of the personnel is comparable to the salaries paid. Need I say more?

Those who saw correctional work as prestigious in the eyes of the student body and faculty were inclined to attribute this view to factors more or less peculiar to their individual situations. Several mentioned that their schools had a tradition of attracting students interested in public service, which fitted nicely into corrections as a career field. Others referred to the success they had had in propagandizing their program and the field across the campus or the strong support they had received from the president of the university.

A few also cited working conditions in corrections in their state, which were good, or at least much better than they had been. One stated that at his school, where students come almost entirely from lower socioeconomic groups, the relatively high salaries, non-discriminatory hiring policy, and civil service status of correctional work were inducements for many students.

When the perceived attitude of faculty toward correctional work is examined by department, as is shown in Table 15, it is evident that respondents in departments of sociology saw correctional work as being viewed far less favorably than did those in criminology or other departments. Of the 19 respondents in sociology departments who answered this question, only six thought correctional work was considered somewhat or very prestigious among faculty. In contrast, of the nine respondents in criminology or other departments who answered this question, seven said they thought correctional work was somewhat prestigious among faculty.

Some respondents chose to comment about this by noting that sociologists generally display an aversion toward what they consider to be areas of applied sociology, such as correctional work. Several went on to mention that this attitude created special problems in attempting to operate a criminology and corrections program within a sociology department. An illustration of the dilemmas which occur is found in the remarks of one respondent, when explaining why the stature of his program increased as graduation time drew near:

> . . . neither students nor faculty know what to do with a sociology major. Where do you sell it? Corrections is about the only field of buyers. . . . As commencement approaches, we are flooded with worried candidates whom we have never seen before. These are students who now, at the eleventh hour, come to us for an entree into a field which they have rejected up to this point. Faculty are equally grudging in their acceptance of corrections. For nine out of the ten months of each academic year, they encourage students to avoid corrections. In the tenth month, they capitulate because they perceive corrections as an overlooked occupational area and because as sociologists they do not, as a class, have the training to think of occupations. One very serious consequence of all this is that many students who should be steered into a concentration in corrections early in their matriculation are persuaded not to choose this field because of the pressure of faculty who really do not know what corrections is. Uninformed and hostile faculty members constitute, in my judgment, the greatest single impediment to a satisfactory resolution of the correctional manpower problem.

Respondents were also asked to describe the emphasis of their program with respect to teaching theory and skills, and to comment on the caliber of students attracted to programs of criminology and corrections. As shown in Table 16, the overwhelming majority said their program emphasized both theory and skills. Among "established" and "new" programs, 25 checked both and 12 theory only. As would be expected, this relationship is reversed when "non-degree" programs are considered, with 10 teaching theory only and five both.

As to the caliber of students attracted to these programs, very few respondents indicated it was above average while the great majority, 34 out of 44, said it was average. For the most part, the comment was that students in criminology and corrections were fairly typical of those in the social sciences and hence were poorer students than those in the physical sciences but better than those in education or business. A fair number said, however, that their students were not quite up to the caliber of students generally in the social sciences. Indeed, several complained that they needed a "below average" category to answer the question properly.

Among other responses, several noted that the trend over the past few years was for better students to enter the field. One said that, while the undergraduates in his program compared well with the rest of the student body, this was not true of his graduate students, most of whom were persons already in the field who were returning to school, often after a long absence. A few said they were drawing older, more mature students, likely to be married and very job-minded, while one said his students were either drawn by the romantic lore of law enforcement or were persons with a human-problems orientation. One respondent commented that very good minority group students, interested in self-advancement, were entering his program, but majority group students were less capable.

Help Needed from Correctional Agencies

The last question asked how correctional agencies could best provide assistance to departments with courses in criminology and corrections. While some responded that there was very little correctional agencies should do, including one who said they should "stay away and sulk in silence," the question generally drew a spate of suggestions, as summarized below.

1. *Field contact.* By far the most common suggestion was for opportunities for students to observe and take part in correctional activities. Suggestions ranged from tours and visits of facilities to such things as internships, summer employment, and part-time jobs during the academic year. Several also requested an opportunity for volunteer work by students, while a few strongly stressed a need for summer employment opportunities for faculty as well as students.

2. *Financial assistance.* Closely related to the need for field experience was the desire for financial support for students. In addition to paid jobs and internships, stipends for better students were suggested.

3. *Staff involvement in course work.* Some respondents indicated that correctional agencies should make more of an effort to involve their employees in criminology and corrections programs. Their suggestions ranged from granting employees time off to take course work, to tuition grants, to educational leaves for one to three years with full salary and expense allowance.

4. *Involvement of correctional staff in course instruction.* A frequent suggestion was that correctional agencies should make staff available to serve as part-time instructors and as guest lecturers and speakers in criminology and corrections programs. Some respondents also suggested offenders as speakers for some courses.

5. *Agency-university liaison.* Many respondents expressed a desire for a better dialogue with correctional agencies. Specific mention was made of the need to know the personnel requirements of agencies and for consultation by agencies on course content,

6. *Community relations work.* Agencies were asked to do a better job of community relations work, particularly with respect to selling the general public on the idea of rehabilitation.

7. *Recruitment.* It was also suggested that agencies improve upon their recruitment practices through such devices as audio-visual material. Related to this, several noted the need for improved pay scales and better working conditions as a means for attracting students to the field.

8. *Research.* A great many respondents stressed the need for opportunities for students and faculty to carry out research projects in correctional settings. Some also indicated that financial assistance should be provided and that correctional staff should be made available to assist in these projects.

9. *Recognition of academic training.* A few said agencies should give greater recognition to academic training, specifically by requiring a B.A. for some jobs.

10. *Career opportunities.* Several also said there was a need for better career opportunities in corrections for graduates of criminology and corrections programs. In the words of one:

> The fact is that, in spite of the frequent clamor for training for the correctional field addressed to the universities, the field of corrections has not defined any positions to which this training would lead and has not provided within its personnel structure any slots for the utilization of the acquired skills.

11. *Miscellaneous.* One respondent stated that the real problem was not with correctional agencies but elsewhere: (1) with merit systems whose entry specifications and examinations do not reflect current theory and practice; (2) with hostile university colleagues; and (3) with professional associations which fail aggressively to support programs of criminology and corrections when they meet agreed-upon educational standards.

NOTES

[1] Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education, Training and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement,* Source Book I, Colleges and Universities (Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1966); American Correctional Association, *Report of Ad Hoc Committee on Professional Correctional Education* (New York: The Association, 1962); Albert Morris, "What's New in Education for Correctional Work," *Correctional Research,* XIII (issue for November 1963); Howard E. Fradkin, *A Survey of Sociological Instructors Who Teach Undergraduate Courses in Corrections,* Children's Bureau Monograph (Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1960); W. T. Adams, *A Study of Curriculum Content of Juvenile Delinquency Courses in Western Univeristies and Colleges* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1962); W. T. Adams, *An Interstate Approach to Juvenile Delinquency Research and Training* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1963).

[2] Fifteen did not indicate any courses in criminology and corrections; one was a law enforcement program only; one offered an associate in arts degree in corrections; and three were schools of social work which were outside the scope of the survey.

[3] States represented in the East were New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the District of Columbia with one each; in the South, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee and Texas with one each; in the Midwest, Illinois with three, Iowa with two, and Indiana,

Ohio, Minnesota, and Michigan with one each; and in the West, California with eight, Arizona, Washington, and Utah with two each, and Nevada and Colorado with one each.

[4] States represented in the East were Pennsylvania with two and New York with one; in the South, Kentucky, Georgia, and South Carolina with one each; in the Midwest, Indiana with two and Ohio with one; and in the West, California.

[5] Other departments were as follows: Department of Criminal Justice; Department of Police Science; Institute of Correctional Administration; Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections; School of Police Administration and Public Safety; Division of Social Science and Corrections; Department of Public Administration; and School of Social Work. While social work programs were excluded from the survey, one is included because, unlike others, it offers a specialized degree in corrections at the undergraduate level.

[6] Five were undergraduate programs only, two graduate, and one unknown.

[7] Department of Criminology, School of Public Administration, Center for Law Enforcement and Corrections, School of Criminal Justice, and Institute of Government.

[8] It also would have been desirable to obtain information on the number of students presently concentrating in corrections or criminology. However, since preliminary explorations indicated that the figure often was unobtainable, the question was not asked.

[9] This is, of course, an arbitrary assumption, since many courses carry more or less than three credit hours. It is thought, however, that any distortion which results from using the three-hours = one-course formula will not be great.

[10] Some respondents did attempt to provide unduplicated totals.

[11] No comparison is made with programs in other departments because the figures for this category are greatly distorted by the presence of a police science and corrections program with very large enrollment at both the undergraduate and graduate levels but with few students graduating with a concentration in corrections. Were this not the case, the ratios for other departments would be similar to those for criminology departments.

[12] From 1955 through 1960, "between 70 and 80 percent of all students [in social work] received financial aid." Council on Social Work Education, *Potentials and Problems in the Changing Agency-School Relationships in Social Work Education* (New York: The Council, 1966), p. 5.

[13] According to a national survey of students scheduled to graduate from Vocational Rehabilitation Administration graduate training programs in 1965, 88 percent received some form of financial aid, mostly in the form of VRA grants. Marvin B. Sussman, *Progress Report — Rehabilitation Staff Studies: A Program of Research on Occupations and Professions in the Field of Rehabilitation* (Cleveland, Ohio: Western Reserve University, 1966), p. 9.

[14] For example, a special advisory committee to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice gave the following qualification standards for probation and parole officers.

> (a) Preferred: Possession of a master's degree from an accredited school of social work or comparable study in correction, criminology, psychology, sociology, or a related field of social science.
>
> (b) Minimum: Possession of a bachelor's degree from an accredited college, with a major in the social or behavioral sciences and one of the following; (1) 1 year of graduate study in an accredited school of social work or comparable study in correction, criminology, psychology, sociology, or a related field of social science; or (2) 1 year of paid full-time casework experience under professional supervision in a recognized social agency.
>
> President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office 1967), pp. 207-208.

[15] These were respondents who, when asked to indicate the areas in corrections for which their students were best prepared, ranked probation and parole either first and second, respectively, or second and first.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES SURVEYED, BY PROGRAM STATUS[1]

Established Programs (33):

American University
Auburn University
Ball State University
Bowling Green State University
California State College, Long Beach
City University of New York
Florida State University
Fresno State College
Iowa State University
Michigan State University
Nevada Southern University[2]
Northern Arizona State University
Northern Illinois University
Pepperdine College
Sacramento State College
Sam Houston State Teachers College
San Diego State College
San Francisco State College
San Jose State College
Southern Illinois University
University of Arizona
University of California, Berkeley (School of Criminology)
University of Colorado
University of Illinois (Chicago Circle)
University of Iowa
University of Maryland
University of Minnesota
University of Pennsylvania
University of Tennessee
University of Utah
University of Washington
Utah State University
Washington State University

New Programs (10):

Anderson College
Indiana State University
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Kent State University
Pennsylvania State University
State University of New York at Albany
University of Georgia
University of Kentucky
University of South Carolina
University of Southern California (School of Public Administration)

Non-Degree Programs (20):

Bradley University
California State College, Los Angeles
Drake University
Fordham University
Idaho State University
Mercer University
Ohio State University
Rhode Island University
Saint Bonaventure University
Southern Colorado State College
University of Delaware
University of Florida
University of Illinois
University of Michigan
University of Montana
University of Nevada
University of North Carolina
University of Richmond
University of Virginia
Whittier College

Eliminations (20):

Alaska Methodist University
Dayton University
Eastern Kentucky State University
Howard Payne College
Loyola University — Chicago
Memphis State University
Northwestern University
Oklahoma State University
Roosevelt University
St. Louis University
Syracuse University
Temple University
Tulane University
University of California, Davis
  (Law School)
University of Notre Dame
University of Oklahoma
University of Oregon
University of Texas
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Western Kentucky State University

Non-Respondents (18):

Arizona State University
Boston University (Sociology)[3]
Bucks County Area Community
  College[3]
DePaul University
Georgetown University
Highlands University
Lincoln University
Northeastern University
Oregon State University[3]
Richmond Professional Institute
Rutgers University
University of Chicago
University of Hawaii
University of Pittsburgh
University of Southern California
  (Sociology)
University of Wisconsin
Valdosta State College
Wayne State University

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[1] For definition of classes, see p. 11 above.

[2] On the basis of information received after the completion of the study, it appears that Nevada Southern University was mistakenly classified as having an established program and instead should have been placed in the non-degree category. No attempt has been made to correct the text or tables, since the change would not materially affect the results of the survey.

[3] Response received too late for inclusion in the study.

CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM AND ITS RELEVANCE FOR CORRECTIONAL PRACTICE

Peter P. Lejins

Since 1944, when Gunnar Myrdal, dealing with the issue of biases in the social sciences, recommended in his *An American Dilemma* that "there is no other device for excluding biases in social sciences than to face the valuations and to introduce them as explicitly stated, specific, and sufficiently concretized value premises,"[1] it has been a frequent practice to preface one's scholarly interpretations and especially recommendations for action by such statements of one's biases or premises. This author would like to avail himself of such practice, and this paper thus begins with a statement of premises.

1. Action programs of an organized society directed toward the problems of crime and delinquency should be appropriately based on the accumulation of the specific knowledge and skills gradually developed in society's dealings with these problems. In this respect social action with regard to crime and delinquency is no different from rational action programs directed toward other social problems in contemporary societies.
2. Action programs addressed to problems as persistent and of such scope as crime and delinquency should appropriately depend on special personnel imbued by means of special education with the available specific knowledge and possessing the necessary action skills.
3. Correction, as one of the major contemporary methods of dealing with crime and delinquency, broadly means the removal of the causes, reasons, motivations or factors that are responsible for the criminal or delinquent behavior. Thus correction can be properly identified as behavior modification. In line with the prevailing conceptions in our modern society about behavior modifying practices and in the setting of our contemporary educational systems, it is quite apparent that the proper educational base for personnel involved in correction is a college or university-level education.
4. Thus this paper starts or ends with the premise or conclusion that the proper basis for effective action against crime and delinquency is university-trained personnel to whom has been imparted the existing body of specific knowledge in interpreting crime and

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> delinquency as well as in removing the causes thereof and to whom have also been imparted the corresponding skills for modification of this behavior.

To this author the above stated premises seem to be so obvious that he would anticipate that most people would immediately agree with them; and yet this author is also aware of the fact that the reality with regard to the preparation of personnel for corrections is about as far from the above-stated position as anything could possibly be: there is no general agreement with regard to the above premises; there is no general agreement on practically anything with regard to the training of correctional personnel; the present personnel in corrections comes either from a wide variety of educational backgrounds of which many do not provide any specific knowledge or skills with regard to the problem of crime, or from no educational background at all and operates on the basis of so-called "experience" acquired on the job or on the basis of so-called "common sense," which unfortunately in many cases turns out to be "common fads."

At this point a question can well be asked: if the correctional-personnel reality is actually as has just been described, what brings this author to the above-stated premises? The answer is twofold: one is the cogency of logical reasoning on the basis of the facts of the situation, which is the eternal source of theory building. The other is the fact that in recent years there has been a rapid increase in the number of special university-level programs which educate their students specifically in and for the area of crime and delinquency and correction. A survey just completed by the staff of the Joint Commission reports the existence of at least 63 such programs in this country, of which 33 are categorized as "established" programs, 10 as "new" programs in the process of development, and 20 as "non-degree" programs. Thus the rational justification of specialized university programs for the area of crime and delinquency has a decisive underpinning in academic reality, not only in the sense of the *status quo,* but also, and perhaps more importantly, in the sense of a trend toward the rapid development of new such programs.

This paper is organized on the assumption that its main topic, the "Content of the Curriculum" cannot be adequately handled without first answering the question "Curriculum, for what?" which paraphrases the now famous question "Knowledge, for what?" This leads further back to the question of the functions of the personnel for whom the curricula are being organized. The functions of the personnel are anchored in the conception of the methods in dealing with the crime problem. The theory of the problem, depending on the school of thought with regard to the essence of the scientific method, further rests either in its usefulness as an underpinning for action programs, which is the conventional pragmatic point of view, or on some etiological interpretation of the respective social phenomenon, probably related to some more general theory of society. This paper begins with some basic and indispensable questions and gradually leads to the curricular issues.

A Historical Perspective on the Development of Personnel in Corrections

Perhaps not necessarily as proof of anything but as an important instrumentality in interpreting the situation, a historical explanation of prevailing conditions is often quite helpful. In line with this, a historical interpretational model for the above-characterized current confused and contradictory situation with regard to the education and training of correctional personnel is offered here.

Until relatively recently, that is the end of the 18th century, Western society dealt with the problem of crime by means of punitive crime control based on a system of criminal law. Although some traces of a correctional approach could always be found, punishment for behavior forbidden by criminal law, accompanied by a considerable amount of incapacitation of the offender, was by far or almost exclusively the prevalent method. Personnel-wise this meant the law enforcement and criminal court staffs inclusive of the judiciary. As to the punitive function itself, until the advent of incarceration it was staffed by various kinds of executioners, who administered corporal and capital punishment, collected financial penalties, etc. When incarceration appeared on the scene as a replacement for these punishments and, in the very beginning in the United States, as an exclusively punitive measure, the personnel issue remained relatively simple: staff was needed that would keep the inmates in, guard them, and count them. In addition there was a need for administrators who would run the punitive prison enterprises: the wardens, their deputies and the top echelons of the guards, such as captains, etc. Thus the prison-based period of punitive crime control rested on three personnel categories: the jurists, the administrators of the places of incarceration, and the guards. The jurists handled professionally the process of making laws and in the course of criminal procedures managed the application of these laws to persons engaged in criminal behavior. They functioned as legislators, judges, defense and prosecuting attorneys, clerks of the court, etc. In addition, as it is customary for the members of the legal profession to participate in various capacities in public administration, they also occasionally emerged as administrators in the punitive incarceration system. As a profession the jurists depended on a system of legal education which gradually became organized as a system of law schools or faculties of law. A certain degree of more specialized training than the general study of law was provided by the study of criminal law in the law schools and by criminal law practice in punitive settings. The administrators of the penal institutions had varied backgrounds as public administrators until recently, and even today this is largely the case. Political appointees, civil servants, retired military personnel and occasional instances of rising from the ranks of custodial personnel represent the more frequent categories. There was no trace, and frequently there is none even today, of any kind of specific educational background for punitive administration: just experience, common sense, and perhaps some previous involvement in the authoritative handling of men and management of enterprises. The guards within a punitive prison needed only physical strength, some skill with weapons, the ability to count, and some ability to handle men in authoritative settings. Almost no education was indicated for the performance of these functions.

The advent of humanitarianism in the setting of punitive crime control meant only restraint and economy in inflicting pain as punishment, holding it to the absolutely indispensable minimum, and a more humane style in handling the offender population. Humanitarianism as such did not bring anything new with regard to the functions of the above-indicated categories of personnel involved in crime control.

An entirely new era started with the advent of the rational correctional approach to crime control. A host of new issues arose. Correction of the criminal offenders means the removal of the causes or reasons for their criminal behavior. The latter is presumed to cease when the reasons therefore are removed. Such removal of causes must be based on the knowledge of the causes: thus criminology appeared as a discipline of social science which deals with the interpretation of criminal behavior. On this interpretation rests the cause-removing control and also prevention of criminality. The theory of the removal of causes, combined with the knowledge of the method and skills, is nowadays conventionally referred to as corrections, which represents, at least ideally, a typical case of modern applied social science.

The basic disparity of punitive and correctional crime control should be noted. While the first operates on the basis of an explicit or implied assumption of the availability of choice or freedom of the will, appeals to the responsibility of the individual for what he does, and thus has both a moral and practical justification for punishment, the second views in a likewise either explicit or implied deterministic way the criminal behavior as the result of conditions and factors present in the individual or his environment and thus does not think in terms of the free choices of the individual and his responsibility for these, but rather in terms of the removal of the criminogenic conditions for which the individual may not be responsible and over which he may not have any control. In spite of some efforts, a theoretical reconciliation of these two rather diametrically opposed approaches has not been accomplished, and their coexistence in practice remains an unresolved contradiction.

The advent of the correctional approach to criminal offenders has been slow and very gradual. In this country it started as a massive across-the-board movement in the very end of the 18th century.

The first stabs at cause removing were rational but had nothing to do with social science. As a matter of fact these first attempts made use of what society had had for a long time, namely religious and moral betterment. From the point of view of religion, crime always appeared as nonadherence to the conduct norms of the religion and its moral system. Hence, when through incarceration the offender became available for prolonged influence, such influence toward removing the criminal impulse was sought from the chaplains. On a large scale and in an institutionalized fashion this plan found its expression in the penitentiary system, which attempted to make noncriminals out of criminals by resorting to the old religious and moralistic process of penitence, repenting of one's sins, and moral regeneration. The well-known model of Christian saints and prophets, many of whom had started out as sinners but then left the wicked world, isolated themselves and arrived at such moral regeneration, was resorted to with regard to offenders. Through physical isolation in the Eastern Penitentiary system, or isolation through enforced silence in the Auburn system, with the leadership of a chaplain and advice of good and moral people, as well as through reading of the Bible, the offender was supposed to achieve moral regeneration. Thus the clergy was the first professional group involved with the incarcerated inmates in a correctional capacity. Although the correctional system is no longer based on religious regeneration alone, the clergy still remains one of the professions which is to a greater or lesser extent involved in the correctional process.

As has just been stated, an important element in the religious reformation was the reading of the Bible. This implied literacy and a need for education. But this was not the only source of the emphasis on education in the 19th century, in the course of which Western civilization, with its growing technology and the need for science, began to worship the idol of education. Statements to the effect that the main cause of crime is lack of education and if people were educated they would never become involved in crime abound in the literature of the 19th century. Thus, conquering literacy, and education beyond that very elementary level became another component of the correctional effort, and the profession of education became involved and continues to be very strongly involved in the correctional process.

Work has always had a moral connotation in most religious and moral systems. It is usually extolled as a virtue in itself and as another purifier of souls. Thus again, from the very beginning of the availability of offenders through incarceration, involving them in a productive occupation was one of the major instruments of correction. Work means skills, and the acquisition of work skills means vocational training. Thus the work foreman and vocational teacher appeared very early on the correctional scene and they represent another occupational or professional group generally involved in corrections.

It is only in the second half of the 19th century, with the emergence of the modern social science and such disciplines as psychology, sociology, and anthropology that the first larger-scale criminogenic cause removal projects began in the sense of attempts at modification of behavior in terms of scientific frames of reference. This meant the advent of psychologists and sociologists to the correctional programs. The more clinically oriented psychologists became more readily involved in the offender-treatment programs than the sociologists. Performing clinical, counselling and mental testing functions, the profession of psychology began to claim a considerable number of positions in the correctional programs. In that sense the much less clinically oriented sociologists lagged behind, except perhaps for the ecologically oriented criminologist specializing in high delinquency and criminality areas, who became involved in the "area projects" on one hand, and on the other, in the clinical treatment of offenders, whose criminality was interpreted in terms of the influence of criminalistic subcultures. The work of Clifford R. Shaw and the position of "sociologist" in the Illinois correctional system well illustrate this type of activity. Sociology in the United States also, however, became involved in criminology and through that in corrections as well in quite another and very important manner. As sociology was getting institutionalized in American universities, it accepted the discipline of criminology as one of its component parts, so that criminology has been and still is housed as a scientific discipline in the departments of sociology, which means that the teachers, the students, the researchers and the publishers of texts in criminology are for the most part sociologists.

Although spectacular and popular at times, the efforts of physical anthropology in the realm of crime are not looked upon with much favor at least in the United States. The contribution of cultural and social anthropology to the interpretation of crime is similar to that of sociology, plus the collection and analysis of criminological data for the so-called primitive societies.

The applied social and behavioral sciences, especially social work and psychiatry to the extent to which the latter can be interpreted as a social science — should be prominently mentioned as professions that have entered the field of corrections both in terms of personnel involvement in the cause-removing processes and in terms of their theoretical claims. In extreme cases both of these professions have claimed the field of correction for themselves in its entirety. The simplicist formula of some of the extremists in the case of social work is that social work deals with people with problems, and since all criminals and delinquents do represent problem cases, they should be a proper target for social workers in terms of the generic skills of social case work. Similarly the simplicist formula of the extremists in the psychiatry field proclaim that true criminal behavior is a case of mental abnormality and thus by definition a legitimate domain for psychiatric intervention.

A number of other academic disciplines and specializations of basic social-science orientation have made their contributions and claims to the field of correction. As examples one might mention physical education and recreation, which quite properly are interested in the management of such activities among the inmates.

A new element in correctional activities began to appear in the second half of the 19th century, more so toward its very end, but especially in the 20th century: that is, the extramural treatment of criminal offenders with view to their correction, which is of late being referred to as community-based treatment and which is best known in its two most popular forms, probation and parole. Recently some other forms, such as halfway houses etc. have been emerging. Community-based treatment does not involve the custodial function, and administration in the sense of management of large agglomerations of offenders is also absent. Thus the main function in the community-based treatment of offenders is treatment itself or case work in the broadest sense of this term, which ideally should be performed by highly skilled personnel specifically trained for it, and which presently is being performed primarily by the members of such professions as social work, psychology and psychiatry.

This brief historical perspective should serve a better understanding of the make-up and composition of the personnel involved in corrections. From the point of view of professional and educational backgrounds we have then: the representatives of the legal profession, partly as carriers of the still existing punitive system, which is anchored in criminal law, and partly as those who take care of the legal issues and the civil rights involved in the handling of the offenders; the custodial personnel, the roots of which go back to the guarding and counting function of the old punitive system of punishment by incarceration, but which also currently performs a similar custodial and security function; the administrators, who, as was pointed out above, stem from various backgrounds; the chaplains; the prison educators of inmates, who in the best of cases are members of the teaching profession; the prison industries personnel, which in the broad sense manages the work of the inmates, performs the vocational training functions, overlapping in that area with the teaching profession particularly through the specialty of industrial education, and which functions as vocational counsellors in community-based treatment situations; psychologists and sociologists representing these two academic disciplines and professions; social workers who are identified by a rigid professional qualification, i.e., school-of-social-work training; psychiatrists who, as a rule, are the graduates of medical schools with a further specialization in psychiatry, as well as the representatives of several other occupations and professions involved in corrections on a somewhat lesser scale.

From the point of view of an analysis of the types of positions, there are three major and basic staff categories: administrative personnel, custodial personnel, and the representatives of several professions engaged in the cause-removing functions, that is, in correction *per se.*

The Emerging Profession of Correctional Work

The above analysis of personnel and the functions which it performs in the course of the correctional process is incomplete, and it is so by design. The needed and gradually emerging specifically correctional function and the corresponding qualifications of personnel have not yet been commented upon. Now the theoretical justification for it and the evidence from the field will be discussed.

Theoretical Justification

One might approach the staffing pattern, the qualifications of personnel, and its educational preparation as these have evolved in the present correctional systems as having a gap or a vacuum as far as the main function of the system is concerned. There is no personnel and no provision for personnel charged with master-minding the correction or rehabilitation of the offender on the basis of the accumulated knowledge and skills passed on to such personnel by means of a process of preparatory education. And yet, as has already been stated, in the case of other problems and tasks which our society attempts to handle rationally and professionally, the development of such personnel is considered to be of primary importance. If we turn once more to a quick perusal of the existing categories of personnel in corrections, the above can be readily ascertained. It is quite obvious that the members of the legal profession are not behavioral scientists and as such do not have any competence in managing behavior modification. The administrators in the vast majority of cases are not educationally prepared for the management of the correctional process. Likewise the custodial personnel not only lacks special criminological or correctional training but generally lacks even a general education base that would qualify it for such specialized preparation. The representatives of all the professions which are presently involved in the correctional process are involved on the basis of their education in their parent profession and as a rule lack educational background in criminology and corrections. They are called upon to perform segments of the correctional tasks for which their professional background qualifies them, but they are not prepared by this educational background to see the total picture and to mastermind the process as a whole. One must thus recognize that there is not presently among correctional employees a single personnel category that is supposed to be made up of the carriers of criminological and correctional knowledge. What should be especially alarming is the fact that with the present staffing pattern there is no basis for improvement in this respect. There are no provisions for the passing on of the correctional knowledge and skills which are constantly being developed, to the next generation of workers in the field. As I have exemplified elsewhere,[2] one might take the case of a psychologist who becomes employed and spends his life in a correctional program. He comes to it with generic training in psychology and no introduction to the body of criminological knowledge. With common sense, experience and learning on the job by picking up information on his own and here and there, this professional somehow manages his job, essentially ignorant as to what has transpired in the last century or century and a half in the way of accumulation of knowledge, skills and experience in attempting to rehabilitate criminal offenders. This writer recalls two friends, one a psychologist and the other a psychiatrist, who, reminiscing about their entry into the correctional field, remarked how strange it was the first day to work in a place with bars on the windows. This remark can well serve as a measure of their lack of contact with the field prior to their entry into it. And yet one could hypothesize that on that first day of his contact with the correctional field, this psychologist already rendered advice in correctional matters. Suppose our psychologist develops on his own some adaptations of psychological techniques to the handling of the criminal offender, and makes, perhaps, some brilliant discoveries or inventions. There is no organized channel within our correctional system to pass this new knowledge and skills to the next psychologist who will come to corrections. The departments of psychology as a rule will not include the materials and wisdom from the area of correctional psychology into their general curricula. The only way in which the next psychologists can obtain this information is by reading the professional journals, if this information happens to be reported, or perhaps criminology texts written by sociologists-criminologists. The journals would have to be correctional journals at that, because the journals of the parent professions are not very apt to publish "too specialized" materials. Another way might be by attending correctional congresses and meetings. All this is quite different with the established professions when it comes to the advancement of their own knowledge. New discoveries, new knowledge, new skills are immediately and rapidly included in the educational curricula of the lawyer, physician, chemist, etc. and the incoming professionals thus have a direct channel to such knowledge. We would not think of depending on the reading of journals and attendance at professional meetings as the basic training for a physician or engineer; and yet that is exactly what is taking place in the area of corrections at the present time. There is a void in the sense of the absence of staff positions manned by people who are educated specifically in criminology and corrections and who see as their professional responsibility the participation and management of the correctional process rather than any other kind of generic activity, and who manage this correctional process with the help of members of other professions when the specialized skills of these professions are needed, such as psychiatrists, physicians, etc., and on the other hand with the help of the various types of supportive personnel such as clerical staff, maintenance technicians, food service personnel, etc.

In the course of the discussion of this subject in one of the groups convened under the auspices of the Joint Commission, a correctional administrator likened the role of the specially educated correctional officer to that of a commissioned officer in the military service who, by graduation from a college-level "academy", is educated in an introductory fashion in the total field of knowledge and skills in use in the military establishment, and as a professional operates within the system, the needs of which are his primary professional commitment throughout his active professional career. It appears that as long as a major staff category of a similar nature is not developed in the field of correction, there is a void that precludes rational and rapid progress.

As far as the specifically correctional function vis-a-vis an individual offender is concerned, this might be characterized as follows. This function consists in the performance of a diagnosis that is supposed to penetrate the intricate constellation of factors in back of offender behavior, the prescription of a procedure that will forestall recurrence of such behavior, and application of the necessary "treatment". Such diagnosis, prescription and treatment total up to the modification of criminal and delinquent behavior. Although there are variations in the criminal laws and the cultural characteristics of different societies and even in one and the same society over the years, criminal and delinquent behavior contains a remarkably persistent core in spite of fluctuations on the fringes. Regardless which society we take, there are always certain basic offenses against the person, against property, against the public institutions and against the social interests of the community, even though these may appear in somewhat differing forms. One country may have prohibition of liquor while others do not; one may control the use of drugs in terms of criminal offenses while another may do so to a lesser degree; still another may prohibit usury as a criminal offense while in another country this may not be the case, etc. These variations should not obscure the presence of criminal and delinquent behavior in all societies, and more than that, the presence of relatively similar forms of such behavior. This clearly points to the pragmatic importance of a corresponding and relatively durable core of specific knowledge, diagnostic abilities, and treatment skills with regard to this type of behavior. The fact that the forms of criminal behavior have functionally different meaning in the varying cultural and social conditions only increases rather than negates the need for specialized knowledge. Thus also from this point of view we again arrive at the basic premise of this paper: the need for personnel in corrections which possesses the special knowledge and the special skills which alone make its performance of the correctional function effective. This premise implies that the generic skills of the several disciplines and professions – when these address themselves to the problem of crime – must become so specialized as to necessitate the development of specialists, that is, carriers of that particular knowledge and pertinent skills, and that the carriers of the generic capabilities of such professions cannot at the same time be effective carriers of sufficiently specialized qualifications.

Another consideration also must enter into the picture: the proper diagnosis of criminal behavior is possible only when the insights made possible by the specialized knowledge of *several* disciplines and professions is brought into play. This means that a correctional diagnostician must have at his command not only the knowledge of one single discipline or profession, but a broader perspective based on a certain degree of mastery of several such bodies of knowledge at the same time. It is the opinion of this writer that a counterproposition aiming to use teams of experts from several disciplines instead of an individual prepared to make the contribution of several of these disciplines bearing on any individual case may sound attractive in theory, but collapses in the face of the realities of practice. Just as a general practitioner in medicine must possess knowledge in anatomy, physiology, pharmacology, pathology, etc. in order to function in his capacity, so the general practitioner in the area of corrections must possess a modicum of knowledge from several disciplines. This does not, of course, deny the use of experts from other disciplines when the degree of expertise required in a particular area indicates this. Nor does it preclude specialization among the correctional workers in certain lines of correctional activity, such as institutional work, community-based work, etc. It only indicates the need for a universe of discourse or a basic body of knowledge and possession of certain basic skills by all correctional workers, just as all physicians, chemists, lawyers, etc. have such general orientation toward their field of operation, which does not preclude their specialization in specific areas of the field, nor calling on experts from other areas when this is warranted. All this adds up to recognition of the desirability of having people who have criminal behavior as the organizational focus of their knowledge and skills rather than approaching criminal behavior from the perspective of one single discipline or profession.

Evidence from the Field

It is believed that the above theoretical justification of the need for professionals in criminology and corrections is supported by the gradually emerging reality of correctional work itself and also by recent developments in the area of education for it.

In many systems the old custodial officer has by now been renamed correctional officer, which implies the recognition of his function in the correctional process. The more and more frequently used title and a corresponding employment category of classification officer emphasizes even more the specific correctional treatment function as the main function of such an officer. Several states, such as California, for instance, with its position of correctional counselor, are moving further and further toward the recognition of a staff position devoted to the performance of a special correctional function rather than the performance of more generic functions of another profession. Another item of evidence is the fact that personnel originally coming to the correctional field from the generic disciplines and professions is identifying itself more and more with the correctional function rather than the generic functions of the original parent profession. The existence, for instance, of the Association of Correctional Psychologists is an example of such a trend. The gradually increasing involvement of all of the correctional workers in such national associations as the National Council on Crime and Delinquency and the American Correctional Association, and the attendance by such personnel of the annual national and regional congresses of these associations, rather than the congresses of the parent professional associations is significant. An analysis of participation in such congresses offers factual proof of the trend.

The previously mentioned Joint Commission survey of degree programs in criminology and corrections provides corresponding evidence from the area of education for the field of corrections; *viz.,* there is an increasing number (43 in all) of university-level programs which have a conception of education in line with the above-indicated conception of a specialized body of knowledge and skills and a profession dealing with the problem of crime in terms of modern social science.

Thus both the theoretical analysis and evidence from the field combine in supporting the need for recognizing the concept of correctional work as an organizational principle for activities directed toward the correctional behavior modification of criminal offenders and the need for specialized personnel which should serve as carriers of the body of pertinent criminological and correctional knowledge and skills.

It might be considered justifiable to ask whether the slow emergence of the concept of correctional work, of a profession of professional correctional workers, and of a supporting educational system is not in itself evidence against the organizational model for the field of corrections implied by these concepts. This writer is prepared to argue that the delay in developing the above structure of the correctional field is due not to its own weakness but rather to the blocks in the way of such development which were created by the historical circumstances. Two such major delaying obstacles will be briefly identified. The first of these might be the already discussed disparity between the punitive law-enforcement and behavioral-science approaches to crime. As was pointed out, the two systems co-exist, but their relationship to each other has never been rationally resolved. Each of the two has a tendency to somewhat ignore the other and to emphasize and promote its own activities. The two systems seem to avoid a direct collision course, which leads to their refraining from an explicit statement of their respective positions vis-a-vis each other. Thus many things remain unformulated and thereby lacking in analysis. This tacit and somewhat covert opposition and lack of interest on the part of the legal profession in correctional matters has left many issues in the correctional field unresolved and without discussion in an open forum. The need for an explicitly correctional body of knowledge and a professional group for the implementation of such knowledge seems to be one of the issues involving a direct confrontation of punitive law enforcement and the behavioral-science approach to crime. The entry of other established professions into correctional work with offenders does not necessitate such open confrontation to the same extent.

The second delaying factor is the situation which developed with the entry of several related professions and academic disciplines of social science into the correctional field, especially in view of the fact that this entry occurred prior to the development of a strong and independent profession of criminology and correctional work. Such disciplines and professions as psychology, sociology, social work, and psychiatry approached the crime problem as a subject matter which legitimately belongs into their sphere of interest and as an additional field for employment and opportunity for their members.[3] Since Western society's activities in the area of crime were just emerging from a long period of total commitment to punitive crime control, this was virgin territory from the point of view of social science. It should not be surprising, therefore, that several disciplines of the latter colonized this territory. This term is used here advisedly to indicate that these disciplines and professions were not interested in the total problem of crime and delinquency for its own sake, but claimed only that part of the field that was a proper subject matter and area of activities from their point of view and developed these portions in the light of their own generic interests.

> Given the highly organized and highly expansion-conscious modern professions with their own educational systems, the field of correction is faced with the cold reality that the above-mentioned related professions are interested primarily in capturing the field of corrections rather than in necessarily doing what is best for crime control and prevention itself. At the same time many of the people who make up these professions are so thoroughly indoctrinated with their own frame of reference that they are sincerely convinced that this capture of corrections by their discipline is the best that can happen even from the point of view of crime and delinquency control and prevention.[4]

Whenever efforts were made to develop an independent discipline of study of crime and delinquency and a special professional group to work with this problem, these efforts were and still are faced with lack of interest and often open opposition on the part of those who are already involved in the field as representatives of other professions. The general public thus is faced with the fact that the proposals for the development of a special scientific discipline and of corresponding professional personnel to deal with the crime problem are as a rule given a cold shoulder both by the law enforcement and punitive crime control interests and by the social science representatives. Again and again the development of criminology and corrections as independent and crime-oriented enterprises was halted in this situation. This analysis explains the persistent difficulties faced by the emerging profession and also implies that the opposition and scepticism of the groups presently involved in the field and therefore consulted as experts in the matter, should not be taken as evidence that the new profession is not needed.

The developments described have resulted in a situation in this country that was characterized as "The Paradox of Separation of Training, Knowledge and Practice":

> What I am referring to, stated briefly, is the peculiar pattern of education and training prevailing in this country, whereby the law schools, for instance, which are responsible for the preparation of criminal lawyers, do not, as a rule, offer in their curricula any criminology or any behavioral-science type courses pertaining to the field of corrections; the departments of sociology, which traditionally are the seat of criminological knowledge in this country and which do almost exclusively the systematic training and to a large extent also the research in this field, have hardly

any direct outlet for their graduates into the field of crime control and corrections; and the schools of social work, which lay definite claim to many positions in the field of corrections, as a rule do not offer any instruction in criminology or training in corrections.[5]

The Body of Criminological Knowledge

There are many references by the people personally involved in the field of corrections to the need for more research and more knowledge: hardly any gathering, any conference or any congress of correctional workers and administrators goes by without registering the plea addressed to the universities for more research and more education for the field. This has become almost a ritual and a sacramental formula. As a rule, however, not much is said beyond the voicing of the plea itself, and the kinds of research needed, but especially the kinds of knowledge that should be taught are not further identified. It usually takes a uniquely skilled discussion leader to get the group to put some flesh on the bones and even he is usually not too successful. Perhaps this hesitancy is due in part to a certain diplomacy in a usually rather delicate situation, where, with the representatives of several disciplines and professions present, any closer identification of knowledge means an embarrassing slighting or extolling of one of these. And the respective professionals usually do not remain silent when the interests of their profession and — in their interpretation by the same token — the interests of the correctional field are under attack.

This writer has twice made an attempt to spell out what might be meant by "the body of criminological knowledge and correctional skills." Once it was a rather modest article on "Criminology for Probation and Parole Officers,"[6] and then, much more ambitiously, a paper for the Pacific Coast Institute on Correctional Manpower and Training in the course of the preparatory activities for the Joint Commission. Parts of this paper are reproduced here with slight modifications.[7]

At the same time this statement may serve as an illustration of the content of the curricula of the criminology and corrections-oriented degree programs, which is the central topic of this paper and of this Seminar.

Well then, when requests are made or justifications presented for special education and special knowledge for the people who are working correctionally or preventively with crime and delinquency problems or are to do so, the following catalogue of topics might be used as an illustration.

Positive and Negative Knowledge

A distinction might be made between positive and negative knowledge with regard to criminality. Positive knowledge is knowledge about the relations of variables in criminal and delinquent behavior and the methods for the removal of its causes. Negative knowledge is knowledge that certain propositions which are held or advanced are scientifically unsound or have not yet been proven to be true. In the latter category belong many popular views about crime and delinquency and many theories advanced by scholars, both often used as a basis for action programs although they are actually wrong or lacking in proof.

A star example of a popular opinion underpinning an action program is the idea of crime control through punishment, which through the centuries was firmly believed in and adhered to and still is by many today without ever having been subjected to a truly rigorous test of its effectiveness. This holds true both with regard to punitive control in general and an individual offender's punishment in particular. A person dealing professionally with offenders should certainly be aware of what is currently known about the effectiveness and usefulness of punishment in general, especially as compared with other methods of treatment, and be aware of what is known about the effectiveness of such specific kinds of punishment as the death penalty, corporal punishment, fines, short-term incarceration, etc.

An example of a theory which was once proposed and was rather strongly believed in is the theory of degeneracy, one variation of the theory of constitutional or inherited predisposition to crime. A worker dealing with offenders should be aware that studies by Dugdale almost a century ago and by Estabrook about fifty years later of the presumably degenerate Jukes family, which in the course of nine generations managed to produce an incredible number of offenders of various kinds, are now being met squarely by the contention of contemporary social scientists that cultural heritage may actually have been responsible for the criminality, in spite of the seeming cogency of the constitutional interpretation. The still popular tendency to assign the misbehavior of a child to the fact that "he is just born that way" should be countered by the worker, not with an equally uninformed dogmatic statement that "he just isn't" but by an at least generally informed explanation and awareness of the reasons why this theory is no longer believed to be valid.

The field of criminology and corrections is full of similar unproven assumptions. The negative knowledge that they are false is a very important store of knowledge in itself, and a worker in the field should be able to use it.

Etiology of Crime

For the purposes of organizing material, I shall discuss three major topics: etiology, treatment, and prevention of crime. Since etiological interpretations underlie the treatment and prevention action programs, all these materials are of course interrelated, and their placement in one or the other category depends primarily on the context within which they are discussed.

The ways of classifying etiological material in criminology are legion. Since the purpose here is merely to demonstrate and illustrate, it does not particularly matter what classification is followed. I shall deal with examples from the type of theories explaining an individual offender, which frequently are referred to as "non-conformist" or "personality theories," then with the sociological theories which explain criminal behavior as a result of factors and a constellation of forces operating in society and which are frequently referred to as "cultural" or "conformist" theories, and finally with biological theories.

Let us take first of all the body of theory and research data with regard to the nonconforming, noncooperative, "ungovernable," hostile, and rebellious child, in conflict with his immediate adult world, be it his family, his school, or his neighborhood. Destruction of property, assaultive behavior toward other children, running away from home, truancy, and neglect of school are the kinds of delinquency typical of such a child. William Healy pioneered the interpretation of such a delinquent as a child whose basic social needs — such as security, response, and recognition — have not been met, who therefore is frustrated and, in his desperate search for a way out of an intolerable situation, happens to strike on delinquent behavior. A long line of scholars and researchers have followed Healy's lead. The psychoanalytical interpretations of delinquent and criminal behavior also belong in this interpretational model, with the substitution of "libidinal drives" for W. I. Thomas' "basic wishes," resorted to by Healy. The accumulation of illustrations and true research data within this frame of reference is tremendous.

If this interpretational model of delinquent behavior is used, the correctional plans which suggest themselves consist either in the removal of the blocking that prevents the satisfaction of the basic needs, or, if the blocking itself cannot be removed, in providing substitute satisfaction of affected needs. Both of these correctional plans imply penetrating diagnostic work, involving great responsibility. Which of the basic needs is actually blocked in the particular case and what actually interferes with satisfaction of the need must be diagnosed correctly. Otherwise, the proposed treatment will be senseless and futile. A proposal for a substitute satisfaction is likewise predicated on correct diagnosis. The responsibility of the caseworker here is very similar to that of the physician or surgeon in his dealings with a patient whose life depends on the doctor's skill. Like the physician or surgeon, the social diagnostician or therapist has to have at his command the best knowledge available with regard to the pathology. It seems quite obvious that only a person familiar with theory, research data, and experience in helping children and youths with this type of problem should be entrusted with the task and anyone working in corrections should have at least general familiarity with this theory.

A second example of a currently popular interpretational model of delinquent behavior and youth crime represents a slight variation of the first. The anchor concept is again frustration or disappointment, this time not due to the nonsatisfaction of the natural human social needs but to the lack of satisfaction of culturally instilled aspirations which the structure of the society does not make it possible to fulfill. This is the currently popular "anomic" interpretation of delinquent behavior which, from the work of such sociologists as Robert Merton through the work of students of delinquent behavior such as Albert Cohen, Lloyd Ohlin, Richard Cloward, and hosts of others, has led to the current interpretation of delinquency and youth crime as the results of differentially lacking opportunities in the groups afflicted by discrimination and poverty. This general frame of reference underpins the multitude of demonstration projects of the President's Committee on Delinquency and Youth Crime and is being carried over into the current Anti-Poverty Program in as much as the latter deals with delinquency.

It would be hard to argue that a worker involved in the preventive and control programs developed in response to this interpretational model should not be thoroughly educated in the theory, in the research data on which it is based, and in the techniques of treatment developed from it. The detail and the most recent developments he must pick up in connection with his job and on the job, just as the practicing attorney will study up on the particular statute and the case material in connection with a specific case. But the practicing attorney is an educated lawyer, and that is what makes him effective in his work. Similarly the correctional worker should have had a basic educational prepartion that equips him with the basic accumulated knowledge in the area of crime and delinquency. If he is to work in a city slum ridden by delinquent gangs, one would expect him to be familiar with the work begun by Thrasher and Shaw and leading through Cloward and Ohlin, Yablonski, Matza, Short, and many others to the most recent developments.

If neither of the above interpretational models seems to fit the situation at hand, the worker may pull out from his fund of knowledge another analytical tool, the "self concept" theory developed by Walter Reckless, Simon Dinitz, Barbara Kay, and others, and see whether this interpretation might provide suggestions for remedial action. Obviously, in order to be able to do this, he must be aware of the existence of the theory and must understand it.

Or perhaps the problems of the child or of the children in the neighborhood may lend themselves to the "culture conflict" interpretation proposed in the days of the immigration period of American history, when the so-called second generation was being brought up in the new country according to the principles of old-country parents. If the correctional worker's educational background has brought to his attention the second volume on *The Causes of Crime* of the Wickersham Commission of 1931, or Thorsten Sellin's *Culture Conflict and Crime,* he may be able to interpret the problems of the children of displaced persons, or Puerto Ricans, or Mexicans in the West on the basis of the analyses and casework suggested for the families and communities of immigrants.

Then again, the worker may feel that the process of learning in the setting of a delinquent subculture of a high-delinquency area, as proposed by Shaw and McKay, pragmatically may be the most effective analytical underpinning for a treatment program. And from the learning-process interpretation of delinquency he can move in the direction of the "differential association" theory of Sutherland in its classical form, or its modification of "differential identification" by Daniel Glaser. The worker can easily find in the abundant literature treatment suggestions on the basis of these theories and try their application either to individuals or the group as well as to community action programs.

If our worker is a very recent graduate, his educational program may have put him in contact with David Matza's "delinquent drift" theory, and he may wish to explore its applicability in his work with an individual case, a group of delinquents in a neighborhood, or in planning broad law-enforcement policies if he happens to be connected with some congressional committee considering crime and delinquency legislation.

Perhaps these references to sociological and personality theories of delinquent behavior in their fine variation and intricate blends should suffice. Let us suppose that our worker is confronted with some modern form of constitutional interpretation of crime and delinquency. Suppose he is faced with the data that a statistically significant number of delinquents happen to belong to one of William Sheldon's somatotypes, notably the mesomorph. If he is an educated criminologist he may wish not to reject this theory as archaic, but may refer to the interpretation of Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck that the mesomorph, as a man of action and a strong and athletic individual, acts on his problems and gets into trouble when these actions are illegal. The other somatotypes, the ectomorph and the endomorph, have the same problems. But the introverted, lanky, and dreamy ectomorph suffers out these problems rather than acting on them and is more of a candidate for a nervous breakdown than for delinquency. The superficial and hedonistic endomorph does not get too concerned by his problems and finds other things in life to enjoy. Or our worker may be confronted with the issue of below-average intelligence. If he has been exposed to the research data with regard to the relationship between delinquency and low IQ, he will know that there is a great deal of skepticism about any inherent tendency toward criminality among the feebleminded. At the same time, he will also know that there is some tendency toward a saturation of the ranks with lower IQ cases, especially among institutionalized offenders. He will further be familiar with the proposed explanations of this fact; namely, Sutherland's theory of the sifting process by which the duller offender gets stuck with the law-enforcement agencies; the compensation factor, which means that the mentally handicapped individual is a little harder pressed in competition and may resort to illegal means to make up for it; and the syndrome consisting of compulsory school attendance, the frustration resulting from failure in school due to a low IQ, the subsequent avoidance of school, and the ensuing contact with the anti-social dropout or truant groups.

Enough examples from etiology. We could go on for hours. They should, however, have conveyed the impression of the importance of a repertory of interpretational models such as is made available through a solid educational program in criminology.

Treatment

The goals, the content, and the methods of correctional treatment of offenders are predicated on the analytical model or the etiological theory of criminal or delinquent behavior that is being used. Examples of these theories have just been given. The following discussion of treatment will deal with the organizational and technical aspects of treatment. Again, examples will be used to illustrate the body of knowledge with which the correctional worker should be equipped by his education. He should be familiar with the nomenclature. He should be familiar with the more important treatment proposals. He should not be indoctrinated in them; he should be aware of them. For the purpose of structuring this presentation, treatment will be divided into extramural or community-based types, with the offender in the community, and institutional treatment.

Probation and Parole. Not only a person preparing himself for the field of probation and parole but any worker with offenders should be familiar with the organizational aspects of the probation and parole services, that is, the structure and administration of the federal, state, and local probation and parole departments, and the proper relationship of parole and probation services to the courts and institutions, as well as to other agencies. A beginning probation officer should not be discovering new territories when he learns that the probation services in the juvenile courts may be organized within the structure of a specific court or may be provided within the general administrative office of the courts, by a state-wide department of probation or probation and parole, or by a statewide or municipal department of public welfare. Somewhere along the course of his education, a student planning to enter the field of corrections should be informed about all these organizational possibilities, their advantages and disadvantages. Thus he will not waste his own and other people's time when he discovers the possibility of such different organizational arrangements and has to be digesting this material when he should be concerning himself with professionally much more advanced matters.

In the course of his preparatory studies, the future probation and parole officer should be familiarized with the findings on the distribution of time among the charges in his caseload. He should be made aware, for instance, of the California research in this respect, and he should be educationally prepared and alerted to the fact that his probationers or parolees may need different types of handling. He should be prepared, when he reaches a supervisory or administrative position, to assign the cases in terms of the styles of probation. As a parole or probation officer, he should be aware of the so-called actuarial or prediction studies and should be able to derive a considerable amount of insight into his cases from familiarity with the generalized role of the background factors in success or failure on probation and parole. He should not be baffled when somebody points out the error in the usual assertion that most parole violations occur in the first three months after release from the institution, an error caused by the simple mistake of computing the rate for the later period without deducting the violators from the original cohort. He should already be aware of this in the course of preparatory education.

Institutional Treatment. The change from capital and corporal punishment and fines to incarceration, and the dominant role played by the institutions during almost 200 years of correctional experimentation since the end of the period of punitive crime control, have produced a voluminous body of knowledge with regard to penal and correctional institutions. A correctional worker should be familiar with this body of knowledge as the result of his educational background. Here again are a few examples of the material from this area.

As in the case of extramural treatment, there is the need for at least a general familiarity with the organizational and administrative characteristics of the institutions, as well as with the major types, their intended function, their actual performance, and their prospects for the future. For instance, the recently developed institutions for offenders who from the legal point of view are criminally responsible but from the standpoint of modern psychiatry and psychology are abnormal, have a whole body of theory and experience surrounding them. Maryland's Patuxent Institution and California's Vacaville are examples in question. What is the theory in back of such institutions? What is an abnormal offender? What are the real functions of such institutions in terms of treatment? What kinds of personnel does such an institution need? How should the offenders be selected? What is the relationship of this type of an institution to the offender with low intelligence? Again, it is not deep knowledge of the type needed and developed by an administrator, a staff member, or member of a legislative committee planning such an institution, but rather an over-all awareness of the issues involved and the impact of such an institution on the rest of the correctional process that every student of corrections and criminology should be exposed to.

A correctional institution implies treatment. A vast amount of knowledge has been accumulated with regard to such broad treatment measures as academic and vocational education programs, work programs, recreation, religious and work release programs in such institutions. The work of the psychiatrist and the clinical psychologist in the institution also belong here. The treatment role of the custodial officer and the effect on the inmates of the ancillary personnel such as maintenance men have been explored in recent research that has led to new concepts of the roles of such personnel. Recent analyses of the role of the psychiatrist in working with the institutional personnel rather than with the inmates, which is related to the concept of the correctional institution as a therapeutic community, should perhaps be singled out here. Not only the prospective institutional worker but any correctional worker would profit from knowledge of this type. For example, a parole officer deals with persons who have all had institutional experience. A probation officer, whose probationer has not previously been in an institution, should be thoroughly aware of what institutionalization has to offer his charge when he makes the decision to recommend revocation of probation. Any modern correctional worker should be educationally prepared to grasp — and therefore promote and develop — the opportunities offered by the combined community-based and institutional treatment offered by the halfway house.

Prevention

Also in the area of prevention, which currently receives so much federal and foundation support, a correctional worker would be well advised to have a sound educational underpinning. Not only should he be aware of the arsenal of preventive measures developed in recent years in the major projects financed under the Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act of 1961, but also he should be informed about some general theory of delinquency and crime prevention.

He should be aware, for instance, that the term prevention, as currently used, is ambiguous because it refers to three distinctly different things. Punitive prevention, corrective prevention, and what one might call mechanical prevention should be differentiated. Of these three types of prevention, modern corrections is especially concerned with corrective prevention. There is a good deal of sound information which a correctional worker should obtain through his education in order to be able to participate in a comparatively enlightened and mature level in planning and managing preventive programs.

There is, for instance, the area of broad societal policies which have a definite effect on delinquency and crime, to which superficially they may not be directly related. Policies with regard to compulsory education and curricular content, various aspects of social security, minimum wages, universal military training, and child labor laws, all have an immense bearing on juvenile delinquency and youthful crime. At present we have only vague and amateurish notions as to what exactly this effect is. But even so, some knowledge is there, and a correctional person should have it in order to represent his field when the institution or modification of such policies is being discussed. Or, he should actually be the instigator of modifications in such policies. The same holds for policies in relation to matters more directly tied in with law enforcement, such general policies in the borderline areas of criminal law and morality as vice, gambling, restrictions on alcoholic beverages, and drug-use control. The disastrous consequences of Prohibition should always be remembered. In this area, too, there is a considerable amount of accumulated knowledge.

Then there is the area of prediction of delinquent and criminal behavior. The predictive devices developed by such researchers as Kvaraceus, Gough, and the Gluecks, to mention only a few, are being experimented with and seem to offer a definite opportunity of selecting out of the masses of young people those cases which warrant a closer look and more intensive study, with a view to preventive intervention. If a broad preventive program on this basis is still a thing of the future, the analytical insights which these researchers offer in the area of delinquency-proneness should be readily available to the professional correctional worker.

Finally, there is the well-known preventive thrust addressed to the concentrations of delinquency and crime in the so-called high-delinquency areas of the modern urban communities. Started in the early 1930's as a result of the ecological studies of the Sociology Department of the University of Chicago, especially those of Clifford R. Shaw, these preventive programs received new impetus in the early 1960's through federal and foundation funding and certain theoretical developments. The theory of the criminalistic subculture and the interpretation of the anti-social gang behavior, which are at the bottom of our current concern about youthful violence in our cities, represent topics rich in discussion and research data. The detailed analysis of the school dropout as an economic suicide and of the youth who is unemployed because he is technologically untrained should certainly be in the repertoire of the professional correctional worker, lest he remain blind to a major across-the-board development in his field.

Education for the Field of Criminology and Corrections

It is assumed that analyses of the field of corrections, which were presented in this paper, especially regarding the functions to be performed by the correctional personnel, have adequately demonstrated the need for a special university-level education in criminology and corrections. The analysis just made of the body of criminological knowledge and correctional skills should have given an idea of the knowledge which such an educational program would be imparting to the students. In this section the organization and the setting within the university structure suggesting itself for such an educational program will be briefly outlined.

The Level of the Proposed Educational Program

Perhaps the most basic and central element in this proposal is the undergraduate curriculum in criminology and corrections leading to a B.A. degree. Its function in preparing the personnel for corrections is conceived as similar to the function of all such B.A.-level programs which are meant to prepare students for various areas of activities such as chemistry, botany, physics, engineering, history, psychology, etc. As all of these programs, the B.A. in criminology and corrections is conceived as a preparatory course of study for those young men and women who, upon completion of secondary education, would like to prepare themselves for work in the area of prevention and control of crime and delinquency. By work here is meant any kind of activity such as teaching, research, employment in clinical capacity in community-based and institutional treatment programs, work in preventive programs, administration of any of the above programs, etc. The purpose of this B.A. program is to provide the student with an introduction to the body of criminological and correctional knowledge in the sense of criminal etiology, methods of cause removing or modification of behavior, and the available skills. This curriculum is envisaged as a general curriculum, which should serve as the basis for various types of subsequent specializations.

The graduate programs, both of the M.A. and Ph.D. type, as well as programs leading to more professional rather than research advanced degrees are assumed to be a logical and necessary sequel to the B.A.-level education. A combined advanced degree, e.g. with advanced study in psychology, social work etc., is a distinct possibility. Since views have been expressed that specialized education for the field of corrections should begin only on the graduate level as, e.g., in the case of social work, it should be pointed out that the view is maintained here that the undergraduate curriculum is absolutely essential, because, on one hand, the type of knowledge to be communicated appears to be proper for undergraduate instruction, and on the other hand, because the field needs personnel of the college-graduate type. The analysis of the needs of the field, as has been stated earlier, points to the need for college-level education for those who are to work preventively or correctively with offenders. On the other hand, planning for more advanced degrees than the B.A. as the basic qualification appears to be both unrealistic and unnecessary. To avoid misunderstanding it should perhaps be reiterated that this last statement does not in any way detract from the need for a certain portion of the correctional personnel occupying more advanced and professionally more sophisticated positions to achieve advanced degrees. Thus a B.A. degree program in criminology and corrections may well strive to have a continuation on the graduate level.

Views have been expressed repeatedly that a two-year associate of arts degree might currently be the most appropriate step for the field of corrections to strive for. Recently this type of development has taken place in law enforcement personnel training. A great number of junior and community colleges are establishing this type of program. The state of California is probably the star example. A similar movement is noticeable also in education for correctional work. This proposal should not be construed as excluding on a temporary or even permanent basis the need for programs of this type. It may very well be that in the field of corrections – when it finds itself to a greater degree than heretofore – a niche may be found for A.A.-level personnel, primarily, probably, from the point of view of economy of educational energies. This allowance not withstanding, this proposal explicitly maintains that the basic category around which the personnel of the correctional field should be built is a four-year special degree.

Scientific Discipline Identification and Location within the University Structure

The criminologist and the correctional worker are engaged in interpreting the motivations for criminal behavior and in attempting its modification. These are clearly functions which belong into the domain of social science, pure and applied. Thus the educational preparation for the field of criminology and corrections means the preparation of social or behavioral scientists who specialize in a particular area of human behavior. This is a fact that should never be forgotten in planning and managing educational programs in this area.

The above implies that the four-year B.A. program in criminology and corrections must have a twofold course content: on one hand a general social science component appropriate for the B.A. level, and on the other hand special courses introducing the student to the field of criminology and correction.

With regard to the general social science component, the following might be said. In this country criminology has been housed in the departments of sociology and is in general handled as a sociological specialty. The term sociological criminologist is quite common. A very considerable portion of current criminological knowledge in this country is knowledge about criminal behavior derived by applying the principles and methods of sociology. Hence sociology suggests itself very cogently as the kind of social science which a future criminologist should be introduced to and by means of which he would reach the phenomenon of crime. On the other hand it is quite obvious that the psychological type of study of criminal behavior is equally important, if not as popular in this country. It should be remembered that on the continent of Europe and in South America it was criminal psychology rather than sociological criminology that was and to a great extent still is the dominant discipline. Thus some at least elementary background in psychology appears to be a must for a person planning to devote himself to work with criminal offenders. It would be hard to imagine a professional criminologist who would not be at least to a certain degree versed in the area of abnormal psychology and psychological testing. Without some knowledge in these areas he would be like a man blind in one eye, walking through his criminological career.

Thus the social science component should apparently be made up of both sociology and psychology. In the current university parlance this may be stated as a major in sociology and a minor in psychology, or vice versa.

The question comes up whether the criminology program should thus be located in one of the social science departments, psychology or sociology, or whether it should be organized as an independent unit, as a department of criminology or perhaps a department of criminology and correction, with the necessary number of sociological and psychological courses required of its students. This latter arrangement de-emphasizes the fact that a criminologist is a social scientist and would probably tend to somewhat weaken the social science component of his program. If American universities as a rule had undergraduate departments of social science, of human relations, combining the elements of sociology, psychology and other social science disciplines, then the place of the criminology program would logically be a division or a specialization within such a department. With the conventional university structure having separate departments of sociology and psychology, perhaps one of the best solutions might be a specialization in criminology within a department of sociology, with a required minor in psychology. The Criminology Program at the University of Maryland is *e.g.* organized on the basis of such a model. It is rather obvious that in view of the differences of opinion with regard to the particulars and the difference in the internal structure of the universities, the uniformity of the organizational model should not be considered a crucial matter. The essential point is that a student graduating with a B.A. degree in criminology and corrections should have had appropriate amounts of sociology, psychology and special courses in the area of criminology and corrections.

The social science disciplines in this country, and the corresponding departments, are usually located in the colleges of Arts and Sciences, which means an additional set of liberal arts requirements for the students. Although legitimate differences of opinion in this respect are possible, by and large the views are often expressed that a liberal arts educational background is preferred also for those entering the field of corrections. This is certainly true for all those who come to the field via the schools of social work. It should be noted that many universities, in addition to and quite independently from the colleges of arts and sciences, have introduced a "general education requirement," which as a rule only very slightly differs from the minimal liberal arts requirement. Thus with some universities at least it has become somewhat of an academic question whether one does or does not prefer the liberal arts education, because all students are usually subject to the above general education requirement. One might reiterate that as long as the criminology student is regarded as a social science student, he would in most universities by that token be in the college of arts and sciences.

As to the location of the graduate programs in the area of criminology and corrections, a much greater organizational variety is possible. The fact that the criminologist and correctional worker, subject-matter-wise, remain social scientists also in their graduate studies, justifies the location of such graduate programs within the conventional social science departments. On the other hand, more specialized and independent academic units directly identified with teaching and research in criminology and corrections are much more possible on the graduate level. One could even think of such structures as an undergraduate criminological program being located in one of the social science departments, and the graduate continuation of that program functioning as an independent specialized unit, such as a school of criminology, or an institute, or a

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center of criminology and corrections. All of these organizational structures can be exemplified by programs presently in existence in American universities, as verified also, by the way, by the recent Joint Commission staff survey of degree programs in criminology and corrections.

The possibility of combined advanced degrees was already mentioned. So far this is a relatively little explored area, and the possible integration of many fields holds promise.

Students Served by These Programs

So far reference has been made only to the conventional college-age students who are being served by the programs under discussion. It is of course well known that there is another type of student whose needs must be taken care of, that is, the "adult" student, who is already an employee within the correctional system and who is interested in obtaining a degree in the field of his specialization. The education of the college-age students in criminology and corrections may take care of the needs of the field in the future; one probably should say in the rather distant future. Presently there are many employees who are interested and will greatly profit by degree education, and for quite some time there will be many employees entering the field without appropriate university degrees.

Besides the already existing programs in criminology and corrections, the correctional workers satisfy their educational needs and interests in one of three ways. They may participate in in-service training programs, where such are available. In the area of law enforcement this often means the "police academy"-type of instruction, which as a rule is quite special and technical and is made up of what is frequently termed "nuts and bolts" courses. Or they may avail themselves of various kinds of institutes and extension courses, usually without academic credit and some times resulting in a certificate such as offered by some of the local universities. Thirdly they may pursue a degree program in a related department, frequently sociology, political science or psychology, thus achieving the B.A. status.

The management of the above-indicated adult education programs for correctional workers is usually in the hands of the extension, continuation, or adult education colleges, whatever the particular title might be. Recently several criminal and correction centers and institutes started taking over such adult education in the areas of law enforcement and correctional work, in that sense competing with the traditional adult education units of the university. As a rule such enterprises face very strong resistance on the part of the academic faculty with regard to degree programs and often must limit themselves, at least for the time being, to the teaching of non-credit extension courses and organization of seminars, institutes and conferences. All such developments should be evaluated as desirable and proper, with preference given to the special criminology and corrections programs, centers, schools or institutes which manage this type of continuing education since they usually have more extensive facilities and greater professional competence than the general adult education units of the universities.

Subject Matter Content

A general reference to the subject matter content of the degree programs in the area of criminology and corrections was given in the section of this paper dealing with the "Body of Criminological Knowledge." The subject matter of the graduate programs, by their very nature, is bound to be extremely diversified, with different institutions developing various types of specializations. The scope of this paper does not permit a detailed discussion of all of these. It will suffice to tentatively indicate that these graduate programs may be differentiated as leading to careers in research, in teaching, in administration, in specialized correctional services both community based and institutional, careers in prevention or in institutional education, etc., all of this both on the M.A. and doctorate levels.

The curriculum of the undergraduate program in the specific area of criminology and corrections can be more easily specified. Tentatively it could be identified as six areas, units or courses:

1. a general introductory survey course in criminology
2. a general introductory survey course in juvenile delinquency
3. an introductory course in institutional treatment
4. an introductory course in community-based treatment including probation and parole
5. a survey course in prevention
6. a field training course or placement with a correctional or preventive institution or agency.

The above group of courses would provide an appropriate and at the same time the maximal possible concentration for an undergraduate student.

This criminology and corrections core would be combined with three additional elements which were discussed above:

1. undergraduate core courses in sociology
2. introductory psychology and such areas as abnormal psychology, tests and measurements, and some developmental psychology
3. the general university and/or liberal arts requirements.

Association and Accreditation

It appears that with the number and type of programs reported by the Joint Commission Staff Survey an organization of the schools offering such programs in the form of an association is strongly indicated. This would provide a very needed forum for an exchange of ideas and experiences and would gradually lead to an agreement on standards and ensuing accreditation.

Relationship of the Educational Programs to the Field of Correction

As a concluding statement for this paper an observation is in order regarding the interaction between the educational activities of the academic institutions and the action programs of the practical field of correctional work. Reference was made to what has become almost an item of correctional folklore: the refrain, that more research by the academic institutions would be appreciated, as would more education for correctional personnel. As was pointed out, these requests stop short at this point usually without any further elaboration of just what is implied. The truth of the matter is that the correctional community is as much of a determiner of the educational programs and research by the university as the university itself, and actually much more so. The universities educate young people who ask what the particular line of training is going to give them. Quite naturally they ask this in rather practical terms, meaning jobs and advantages which educational qualifications will give them in applying for jobs. It is at this point that reality comes in. The university can develop programs and offer special education only in cases where the particular occupational area provides positions for the graduates of the particular program and remunerates by status, rank and salary the acquired educational qualifications. If this is not the case the correctional field, just as any field, might just as well forget its requests for special educational programs. If it does not create and provide a clear-cut position for a person trained in criminology and corrections and versed in criminological knowledge and correctional skills, no such persons will be produced. Or, if such a program is attempted by a university, it will wither away in no time. The image of a young man or woman who sits in front of his adviser in the beginning of his academic career and asks, "of what advantage to me will be the special criminology and corrections program that I might take, when I graduate, get married, have to support a family, and will look for a job in the field of corrections," should be before the eyes of all correctional administrators at all times. If the advisor's reply has to be "oh well, you will have to enter the service on the same basis as any high school graduate, or a graduate in history, education or home economics, because unfortunately you will not be a psychiatrist or a social worker when you graduate from this specialized criminology and corrections program and there is no specific and appropriate job for a carrier of criminological knowledge and correctional skills in the American correctional system," then one might as well forget about the whole thing. But then not the universities, but the correctional field itself will be to blame.

The educational program in criminology and correction proposed in this paper and gradually emerging in many leading universities of this country, is envisaged as an educational component of a true profession of criminology and correctional work which also is emerging, but as all modern professions needs to be supported by an appropriate educational program.

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UNIVERSITIES AND THE FIELD OF PRACTICE IN CORRECTIONS

Vernon B. Fox

The relationship between universities and the field of practice in corrections has varied widely in the United States. In some areas, the university views itself as having a pure research and learning function with no concern for the field of practice and less than no regard for the practitioners in the field. At the other extreme, some colleges and universities have almost neglected high-quality research and learning in order to meet the demands and needs of the field. Most American colleges and universities fall somewhere between these two extremes and cooperate with varying effectiveness in the concerns of the field.

The most difficult phase of education in any field is the integration of theory and practice. Theorists tend to think of their field in terms of broad principles, while practitioners tend to think of their field in terms of getting a specific job done. Too many textbooks indicate that there are two areas in criminology, the theoretical and the practical. Others neglect the field of practice. The logical approach, however, is that theory and practice comprise a single unit in any field, with conceptualization bridging them in operation. Graduate seminars listed by such titles as "Theory, Concepts, and Practice in Criminology and Corrections" provide considerable understanding in the integration of theory and practice.

This paper explores the problem of how knowledge centered in the university is delivered and may be changed in order to enhance the integration of theory and practice. Good theory emerges from good practice, and good practice can be guided by good theory. The integration, however, has to be accomplished by a person, whether student, professor, practitioner, or administrator. It has to be accomplished by all persons concerned if the team is to be effective.

The relationship between theory and practice is not really difficult to understand. Everyone knows the basic experiment in physics in which a vacuum is created to eliminate external factors so that a lead pellet and a feather drop at the same rate of speed, thus demonstrating the law of gravity. The principle is good and is applicable everywhere. In the practical situation, however, there is no vacuum. Only a professional who can integrate theory and practice can assess the influences of the external and intervening factors and modify the original theoretical approach to fit the practical situation. This problem of theory and practice permeates all fields. Social work, for example, has invested considerable effort and thinking in this area.[1]

The approach to be taken by this paper could have been any of the series of alternatives. First, an objective survey could be made, but such

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a survey has already been made at the University of Oregon in 1966.[2] Second, an itemized listing of the experience of various universities functioning in the field could be made, together with their accomplishments. Third, a case study could be made of one university's experience, augmented by typical experiences of other universities. I have selected the third approach.

Although this approach runs the risk of overlooking and/or underemphasizing some better, bigger, and more important programs, the intent is to demonstrate how the university can interact with the field of practice, rather than to promote itself or any group of universities. Southern Illinois University at Carbondale is doing much in interaction with the field. The University of Southern California, the University of Minnesota, Tulane University, and others, along with Florida State University, are working with juvenile officers and correctional personnel. Michigan State University and the University of California at Berkeley have been active in the field for several decades, as has Ohio State University. Research and statistical interests seem to predominate at the University of Pennsylvania and the University of Maryland. Several universities have added programs in criminology or criminal justice in the 1960's which will have an impact on the field.

According to the survey by the University of Oregon, Florida State University probably has had as many and as intensive contacts with the field of practice as any university. Consequently, it seems reasonable that this experience be used as a base for the present paper. The different experiences of other universities are added to round out the potential of the universities' contributions to the field of practice. In this manner, a model can be forged that might present the ideal contribution of the university to the field of practice and could be used as a standard for other universities.

I shall describe briefly the various forms of interaction between universities and the field of corrections, and conclude with a few remarks on university problems in this area.

Field Trips

Field trips in connection with classwork can have two significant advantages. First, the integration of theory with practice has its beginning in the field trips if it is combined meaningfully with subsequent discussions. Second, questions asked by students on field trips serve to make correctional administrators aware of new developments in the field from which some of them may be isolated by the daily rush of their duties and problems. Furthermore, visits make administrators aware of the public's interest in correctional programs.

Undergraduates enrolled in basic courses in criminology and corrections at Florida State University regularly visit a jail, two juvenile institutions, a state correctional institution, a federal correctional institution, a large state prison, a state road prison, and a modern reception and diagnostic center. The graduate classes have visited other institutions, such as the Louisiana State Penitentiary at Angola, the U. S. Penitentiary at Atlanta, and several institutions in Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, and South Carolina. This procedure makes students aware of the correctional programs and shows correctional practitioners and administrators that the public and the universities are interested in their programs and progress.

Speakers and guests from the field come to the classroom frequently in preparation for or an evaluation of field trips; or occasionally the speakers may explain their programs without field trips. Distinguished guests include outstanding American and foreign criminologists, and this association is most helpful to the students.

The response to this type of relationship between the university and the public in Florida has resulted directly in movement to improve the state's correctional system. The first half of the course is used to develop an awareness of what a correctional program should be and to discuss other state and federal systems. Then the students are taken to visit local institutions and programs. The discrepancies between the desirable and the actual were so great in the early and middle 1950's that the young crusaders in the classes became actively interested in the field of corrections. Since the classes are large, 400 to 500 students are graduated each year with an awareness of correctional programs which provides a base for subsequent social action. Today these students are in the legislature, in the judiciary, in journalism, and in leadership roles in civic and political affairs.

Internships and Field Placements

The internship or field placement is important in the integration of theory and practice. Every student, undergraduate or graduate, who does not already possess adequate experience in the field, should have an internship or field placement for at least three months, preferably longer. When a student who has this experience graduates with a degree, he will not blunder into mistakes of over-identification, confidence beyond his competence, and other errors frequently made by new college graduates. At the same time, the student is required to do enough thinking and reporting in written assignments concerning his internship so that his professors are sure that he does not view the classroom and the field of practice as two unrelated experiences.

Selection and weeding out are the negative contributions of education, while teaching and research are its positive aspects. The selection process begins at admission to any university program and continues throughout the academic career. The final weeding out at Florida State University is in selection for the internships and field placements or "counseling out" to other curricula. To allow for this weeding-out process, there is a statement in the general catalogue to the effect that enrollment can be refused at any time on the basis of "physical, mental, or personality handicaps that would be detrimental to the welfare of the clients whom he would serve."

Internships in criminology and corrections have been served throughout the United States, in Canada, and in the Panama Canal Zone. Candidates for the Master of Social Work degree, with emphasis in corrections, have had field placements in probation departments in New York City, the Juvenile Court in Tampa, the Federal Correctional Institute at Tallahassee, and the Dozier School for Boys at Marianna. Approximately 120 undergraduate and graduate students are on placement at some time during the calendar year.

Certificate Programs and In-Service Training

The Certificate in Corrections requires completion of 45 quarter hours in courses in criminology and corrections. The certificate was designed primarily for two purposes. First, there are many persons in the field of practice who consider themselves too mature or too laden with social and job responsibilities to come back to a university for a degree. Yet they want to improve their education. By taking one course at a time, either on campus or in extension, employed persons can compile this credit over a period of approximately four years.

Faculty from Florida State University began teaching extension courses in the institutions in Florida in 1957, when the first course was offered at the Apalachee Correctional Institution at Chattahoochee. About 20 staff members, including the superintendent, took that first course. A similar program was begun at the Florida State Prison at Raiford in 1964. One lecture or one course is not enough to change the attitudes of an entire institution. A continuous sequence over a period of years is necessary to accomplish that. The responses of the 60 officers and administrators at the end of the sequence at the Florida State Prison at Raiford showed a perceptible increase of understanding and commitment to the treatment orientation.

The certificate program has been used in several institutions and law enforcement agencies in Jacksonville, Pensacola, and Montgomery and among law enforcement and correctional personnel in the Panama Canal Zone. The head of the Florida Division of Corrections earned the Certificate in Corrections by taking classes on the campus.

A program financed by the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance began operation in 1968 for in-service training of probation, parole, and prison personnel throughout Florida, under the direction of a faculty member of the University's Department of Criminology and Corrections. Many other universities have carried out training programs. Southern Illinois University offers an excellent program for correctional officers. The University of California at Berkeley and Michigan State University are active in this field.

Significant impact in the juvenile field has been made by the delinquency control institutes at the University of Southern California, University of Minnesota, and Florida State University. These intensive programs, geared to the practitioner, are generally 12 weeks in length.

Many similar but shorter programs, such as the workshop at Tulane University, are conducted by universities throughout the country.

Several universities have work-study programs. The program offered by the University of Wisconsin and the Wisconsin Division of Corrections is probably one of the more outstanding. In this program, the student works half-time on the job and attends the University half-time. In some programs, it is a block arrangement in which the student spends a term on campus and a term on the job. Other programs are concurrent, with the student spending a half-day on the campus and a half-day on the job or alternate days on each.

This program has not worked out at Florida State University. Several Southeastern states have made arrangements for key personnel to come to the university to finish bachelor's degrees or to earn master's degrees. In most cases, however, the candidates were not able to get by the Registrar's office. The resulting negative attitude among some correctional administrators finds its way into such questions as "Are you still flunking them out at Florida State?"

Although this may reflect the poorer quality of personnel in correctional programs in the past, the situation is fast changing. It might be noted that the half-dozen persons who have completed master's degrees while on leave of absence from correctional agencies in the South have primarily come from juvenile courts.

Consultation

While corrections has been much slower to use consultants than many other fields, its use of university personnel for consultation has increased in recent years. Directors, deans, and department heads of programs in criminology throughout the United States, and a large proportion of the faculty are engaged in consultation, much of it financed by federal grants.

Other consultation is geared to the need of the region. The University of California at Berkeley may be said to serve the western half of the country. Michigan State University serves the midwest. Several universities serve the East and Northeast, particularly the University of Maryland and the University of Pennsylvania. Southern Illinois University at Carbondale is influential in consultation over a wide area. Florida State University serves the Southeast generally, and the new program at Sam Houston State College is designed to serve Texas.

Through widespread consultation, the universities are participating with correctional administrators in various projects. Consultation from Florida State University, for example, has been part of such programs as: the inmate services project at the Alachua County Jail, Gainesville, Florida; the delinquency control project of the Winston-Salem, North Carolina, Police Department; the federal public offenders project; a delinquency control project in Knoxville, Tennessee; and various similar and related ventures. The faculty serves on many policy-making boards in the field. The head of the department serves on: the Florida

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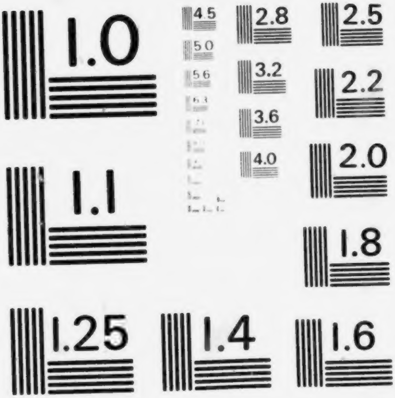
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MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

Advisory Council on Adult Corrections and Prison Industries; the board of directors of the Florida Juvenile Court Foundation; SEK, an organization working with delinquents in Tampa; statewide planning for Vocational Rehabilitation; and with several other agencies. Similar activity occurs to varying extent in most universities with programs in criminology and corrections.

Political and Social Action

The contribution of the university to the field of practice derives from its function as a source of knowledge. For example, when the first field trips were taken at Florida State University in the fall of 1952, it was found that the lowest salary in the correctional program in Florida was $90 per month for a 12-hour day, seven days a week. Food costs were then 17 cents per day per man at the Florida State Prison at Raiford. These issues were examined in classes in correctional administration. It became apparent that centralized correctional programs in other states were more effective than Florida's decentralized system.

The document that became the committee substitute bill in Florida's legislature, which eventually created the Florida Division of Corrections, was based on a master's thesis written at Florida State University in 1955.[3] The mature student who wrote it was employed by the Legislative Reference Bureau of the State of Florida. At the same time, sons and daughters of influential legislators were going through the basic courses in criminology. The bill to organize Florida's prisons was introduced in the 1955 legislature and passed the House of Representatives by vote of 72 to 4. But the president of the Senate, who had become acting governor and wielded considerable political power, represented the two counties in which the Florida State Prison at Raiford was situated. The political advantage he had enjoyed in that situation was threatened, and as a consequence, the bill did not get out of committee in the Senate. In the 1957 legislature, where the balance of power had shifted, the bill was again introduced and became law, creating the Florida Division of Corrections as of July 1, 1957.

Subsequent assistance in the legislative process by representatives from the university has facilitated legislation relating to the Florida Probation and Parole Commission and the Florida Division of Youth Services, most recently in the area of mandatory parole and in the provision of legal services for juveniles, resulting from the *Gault* decision.

Research and Research Centers

The university is to provide information, rather than to frame public policy, *per se*, but it is hoped that the providing of information will lead to intelligent public policy. Adhering to this philosophy, the university has been in the position of furnishing information to support both sides of a debate in the legislature without being involved in the conflict.

The Department of Research was built into the Division of Youth Services as an evaluative function, rather than merely a statistics-gathering and annual report function. The most effective point in the debate over creation of the department was that a social program without research is like business without bookkeeping; in neither case does the operator know his profits and losses, how effective his work is, where he is going. Research is the bookkeeping of social programs.

All major universities today have grants from federal funds or private foundations to support research. In fact, many departments have more money coming in from grants than from appropriated state funds.

An example of such grants is the new Southeastern Correctional and Criminological Research Center at Florida State University, funded for three years by a grant of $300,000 from the Ford Foundation. The new center is designed to serve North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. Built into the design is an agreement with the corrections departments of the four states to pick up support in 1971. Its performance in the meantime will determine whether such a regional center is feasible and can be useful.

International Contacts

Through State Department and other programs, persons from the fields of criminology and corrections in foreign countries are brought to the United States for short courses, tours and visits, and general orientation in the field. The University of California at Berkeley and the University of Southern California in Los Angeles have made considerable contributions in this field. At this time, probably the most ambitious program is at the Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. Florida State University has not participated in these programs, although foreign students are enrolled in all degree programs.

Conferences, Institutes, and Seminars

Corrections often makes use of the university's capacity to conduct conferences, institutes, and seminars. Special institutes peripheral to the main body of the university are frequently asked for such help; for example, the Institute of Government at the University of North Carolina, the Institute of Government at the University of Georgia, and the Traffic Institute at Northwestern University.

Florida State University has developed the Southern Conference on Corrections, which began in 1956 and has grown to some significance in the Southeast. It has brought together educators, practitioners, and administrators in the field of criminology and corrections to discuss common and timely problems. A regional National Prisoner Statistics workshop was held in conjunction with the 1968 Conference. This exchange of information in an academic atmosphere has stimulated modifications in several correctional programs in the Southeast. Most universities offer short courses and institutes to meet the demands of the field.

Academies and Junior Colleges

A knotty problem always facing the university in its relation to the field of practice is how to handle academy-level instruction. Further, the junior college programs present difficulty in coordinating training and education. While relating to the field of practice, the university is vulnerable when it gears its program toward the vocational focus because the program in criminology then tends to become alienated and isolated from the academic community as a whole. This has already happened in several major universities.[4] In several other universities and colleges, this focus has resulted in a place of low prestige for the criminology program on campus. To be effective within the university, the program must maintain its prestige; otherwise it is not really a part of the university, but is simply using the university as a host agency. The curriculum must be built with concern for university-level scholarship.

Junior college terminal programs offer the most serious confusion because they carry academic credit in the junior college which could be transferred to a senior college or university. Florida State University has reviewed and examined each course in the junior colleges that transfer students. Letters have been sent to each junior college indicating the courses that could and those that could not be transferred. Florida State has found that many students have gone to other universities which would accept more of the courses. The many junior colleges in California and the new ones being developed in Florida, Michigan, Pennsylvania, and other states are providing a greater variety of problems in this area than ever before. To be effective in its role as a university, however, the university must stay with theoretical considerations. The curriculum must emphasize the theory and practice of social control as a psychological, social, and legal problem of dysfunction in modern society.

The junior college is a valuable part of the educational system and is probably contributing more toward direct professionalization of law enforcement and subprofessional correctional personnel than any other educational unit. The university function in regard to junior colleges is to provide faculty and to assist in developing programs. The academy and itinerant in-service training programs, such as those offered by the FBI and other law enforcement agencies, are equally important at a different level. The "how-to-do-it" or "nuts-and-bolts" vocational approach is basic to everyday functioning in many areas, especially that of the correctional officer, work foreman, and many subprofessional positions in prisons, juvenile institutions, and other correctional institutions and agencies.

Each unit interested in education and training has its role. The role of the university is in research, teaching, and service concerning the theory and practice of social control.

Faculty

Faculty for programs in criminology and corrections are scarce and difficult to find. One of the reasons criminological research has been so random is that most people working in prisons do not write and most people who do write are working in universities and not prisons. The same is true of education and training. The faculty in many programs in criminology and corrections in American universities, unfortunately, do not have the academic credentials required of members of the departments of sociology, psychology, English, or history. Rather, many of them have had practical experience but come up short on the academic credentials. The result is that the program tends to take on a vocational complexion.

The primary difficulty with using practitioners as instructors and loading the university faculty with ex-practitioners is that they tend to build their courses around "cases I have known." At the other extreme, academicians and theoreticians without practical experience tend to build their courses around their reading and theoretical concepts. If the role of the university is to be maintained as a center for scholarship, then the latter approach should prevail – if these are the only two alternatives. If a choice must be made, then the student can gain the theoretical conceptualization from the university and get the practical application on the job. Conversely, in courses taught by a practitioner the student is seldom exposed to theoretical considerations. The best combination, however, is scholarship plus some practical experience. This approach maintains the academic respectability of a program worthy of inclusion in a university curriculum.

Florida State University has attempted to avoid this dilemma by requiring the same academic credentials for the professorial ranks as are required in other academic departments of the university, as well as practical experience in corrections. The result is that vacancies go unfilled for months, quarters, and years, but when these positions *are* filled, they are filled with faculty who can relate their practical experience into the total conceptual framework of theories of society, of human behavior, and of legal systems. A faculty which has the same qualifications as their colleagues elsewhere in the academic community, combined with successful practical experience, provides right in the classroom one of the best ways of relating the university function to the field of practice.

Conclusion

Relationships between the university and the field of practice must also involve the total society if social action is to result. The university is part of that society. The correctional field of practice is part of that society. What happens to one system has its impact on the other and, for that matter, the entire system. When an idea hits the water, one can not predict how far the ripples will spread.

Comparisons between the law enforcement and the correctional fields may be of interest. The upgrading or "professionalization" of the line law enforcement officer seems to be focused at the junior college level. The professionalization of corrections, on the other hand, which emphasizes the treatment team or professional and administrative personnel, is focused at the university on the bachelor's or master's degree level. Some of the problems law enforcement is facing now can be anticipated for corrections as the correctional officers are to be upgraded and trained.

In many states, there is discussion among law enforcement officers attempting to upgrade the field as to whether the junior college and university credit programs should be counted toward minimum standards or whether the academy-level or itinerant in-service training programs should be counted. Representing the practitioners, the administrators in the field consistently vote against the junior college and university programs and in favor of the academy-level or itinerant in-service programs. The reason appears to be obvious, though it is seldom discussed. In order to complete junior college and university work, each student must do the assigned work and pass examinations. In most academy-level or itinerant in-service training programs, the credit is based on the number of hours of exposure, the "students" are not threatened with examinations, and they receive a certificate of attendance. After the officer has completed 200 to 500 hours of exposure, he is considered to be qualified in his field without, in most cases, ever having to stand examination. There is need for this type of instruction for the old-line employee who is easily threatened by new ideas and shifting conceptualization, but it is not the role of the university to supply such instruction.

The role of the university is to find, distill, and impart knowledge within a theoretical context. The field of practice functions on a day-to-day level in which the manual of procedures is essential to that operation. The field of practice must know *how* to do things. The university must know *why* they are done. Knowledge of "why" frequently changes the "how-to-do-it" and erases procedures that have been developed and continued by custom and tradition. The university must reveal "the big picture" of society, its problems and alternate solutions, and provide the theoretical context that gives it meaning. The university must relate to the field of practice from its role as the gatherer of knowledge and the theoretician who synthesizes knowledge into meaningful wholes. It must keep its tradition of maintaining a tower from which it can view society and its problems objectively, but it must also go into the field, taking out ideas and bringing them in. It must go into the field to bring in people; it must send people out to the field. Its contribution to the field must be in the role of a university, providing intellectual stimulation to the correctional line and staff and to society's political leadership.

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THE PRESTIGE OF CORRECTIONS CURRICULA

T. C. Esselstyn

This paper is a report on an inquiry concerning status problems in degree programs which are significant for corrections, together with some speculation on questions raised by the findings.

Purpose and Scope of the Survey

The term "status problem" refers to the ranking of an academic corrections program on a college or university campus. It refers also to the ranking or rating of students in such a program. In either case, the ranking or rating may be formal or informal.

A degree program significant for corrections is one which allows the student to major in criminology or corrections or to major in a traditional learned discipline while specializing or concentrating in criminology or corrections. Such a program is viewed as significant for corrections because it is an actual or potential source of correctional manpower. As noted in the survey by the Joint Commission which has been reported here by Loren Karacki, many academic programs of this kind are housed in departments of sociology; some are administered by departments of public administration; and some are incorporated into independent departments of criminology and corrections.

Eighteen degree programs were selected on a wholly subjective basis for inclusion in this study. There is no pretense that those programs are or are not representative of their type. They are simply known to the writer, who has maintained contact with their officials over many years and so knows of their contributions to corrections and to the *corpus scientiae* which undergirds it.[1]

Out of the 18 programs included in the inquiry, usable replies were received from 12. Two replies were brief statements that the chief program thrust was toward scholarship and research without reference to corrections except as a setting for research. No replies were received from four programs.

The Inquiry

Transmitted to each program official was a one-page document, described in its covering letter as being not a survey but "a series of leading and loaded questions." The respondent was asked to address himself to five problem areas which, in the experience of the initiator of this inquiry, were quite common in degree programs significant for corrections. For purposes of this report, those five problem areas will

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be compressed into two: opposition of hostile or uninformed faculty members; and experiences of students.

The questions framed around each of these areas were open-ended. This loose type of unstructured inquiry was adopted for several reasons. First, there was not time to draft any other kind of instrument. Second, since all respondents had recently participated in at least two very tightly designed surveys on corrections-oriented programs,[2] it was felt that another would be unseemly and untimely. Third, what was most desired were the opinions and reactions of program officials to the proposition that corrections is mildly-to-strongly despised on many campuses.

That proposition was not based on facts known to exist on any one campus. Rather, it was based on informed conjecture, on a general awareness of how colleges and universities behave as bureaucracies and as organizational systems, and on years of interaction with many of the respondents. It was also based on relevant passages of the Task Force Report on Corrections prepared for the President's Crime Commission.[3] Finally, it was based on the observed fact that corrections has never achieved wide-spread agreement within its own ranks on how its personnel are to be educated and trained, nor has it achieved substantial concurrence on the educational standards advanced in its behalf by others.[4]

Response to the Inquiry

Much of the response to the inquiry confirms reports of the Task Force and other writers that academic programs significant for corrections are merely tolerated or are actively opposed on many campuses. However, the replies are not uniform. At least two respondents said that opposition was pronounced on the campuses where they last served but is less of a factor in their present assignment. Two others said they encountered opposition on their present campuses in the past, but it is dormant now. Probably the most conservative summary statement that might be made would be that, even where there is a degree program (irrespective of its title) which is significant for corrections, it faces many vexing problems which threaten its survival and limit its capacity to serve as a source of correctional manpower.

Opposition by Hostile or Uninformed Faculty Members

It is, quite frankly, the opinion of this writer that hostile or uninformed faculty members constitute a serious, perhaps the most serious, impediment to the resolution of the correctional manpower problem. Respondents were asked to react to this statement. None agreed unequivocally, yet several said that opposition from faculty members is present on their campuses and affects the vigor of their programs. In one instance, where criminology is taught in a separate department of criminology and corrections, hostility comes from sociology. In another, where the same administrative pattern exists, hostility comes from psychology; in a third, it comes from social work. One common theme in the replies is that, as long as criminology and delinquency courses retain a scholarly and research emphasis, they are widely accepted. However, once they take on an "applied" flavor or become part of a program geared to produce practitioners, they become suspect by prominent segments of the faculty.

What one observes here is, first, an academic jealousy over property rights in criminology and its offshoots, an assertion of a single academic orthodoxy as a normative value. It is a continuation of the ancient battle between those who seek pure knowledge and those who seek to apply knowledge. The medieval church faced the same issue: There is one true faith, all else is heresy.

Whereas there was a tendency in these responses to agree, albeit with some reluctance, that hostility toward significant degree programs lurks just below the surface of many campuses, there was not complete agreement on why this might be true. One respondent said that, at his university, it is not so much a matter of hostility as of indifference and complete ignorance. Another said that, in his experience, opposition to a corrections program arises chiefly where it has been actively fostered. If no official efforts are made to foster such a program, the faculty will be neutral (or at least not hostile) to it.

The serious implication here is that if one does relatively little on college campuses about the supply of competent practitioners, corrections may in the long run fare better. However, if one establishes a program consciously designed to improve the quantity and quality of correctional workers, he is likely to find that he has stirred up a hornet's nest which can destroy him and his program unless he is ready with defensive measures. And the best defense here, as elsewhere, is a good offense; namely, a continuous demonstration that the future correctional worker is also a high-caliber student.

Still another respondent observed that hostile attitudes among faculty arise precisely because a former practitioner may be a competent intellectual but that this sometimes does not happen. Often prestigious practitioners are employed as faculty members by colleges and universities under an arrangement where experience is equated with academic background, only to have everyone discover that the equation is spurious; that prominence in the one area does not guarantee competence in the other; that the famed practitioner's courses frequently deteriorate into a repetition of dramatic human-interest anecdotes, with no attempt to formulate principles, test assumptions, or integrate experience with the vast body of relevant literature. Thus, it is not uncommon to find that the prominent practitioner who has come as a great campus asset turns out in a remarkably short time to be a great campus embarrassment. And the cause of correctional manpower has been dealt another blow.

There are situations characterized by the complete antithesis of everything that has been said in this section. One significant degree program was established by mandate of a state legislature. It is now regional, even national, in scope and impact, operates on a generous budget, has an extensive and productive field work program, enrolls about 2,000 undergraduates and 200 graduate students, and is about to seek funds for a facility to house a broad and continuous program of interdisciplinary workshops in corrections and the behavioral sciences. Here the program director must be vigilant in order to keep from becoming too popular and thus rouse the envy of other departments.

Much more could be said in this section on hostile or uninformed faculty but limitations of time and space do not permit. The key points by way of summary appear to be these:

1. The battle between the advocates of pure and applied knowledge goes on. It is a profound and exhausting struggle.

2. There is no magic formula for the abatement of this struggle, but several have been advanced. One is to aim to produce graduates who have both scholarly competence and practitioner skills. This tends to muffle criticism from the purists, for it means that one is, after all, in their camp. It means also that one begins to generate business for the purists, since the program tends to attract students, and scholars are not blind to this often dazzling display. Fundamentally, this is the approach of academic orthodoxy.

3. Another approach is to aim principally for practitioner competence while maintaining input lines from research, theory, and scholarship. The program is, then, chiefly a consumer and a tester of pure knowledge while serving as a producer of persons with competent practitioner skills. This is the approach of academic heresy, or at least academic heterodoxy.

The hazards of second-class academic citizenship are perhaps inherent in the latter approach, but that depends on who is applying the label and what it means by way of departmental budgets, judgments about social crises, and the capacity to develop students who can become competent practitioners in corrections while still retaining scholarly objectivity toward it.

Experiences of Students

The experiences of the student in a degree program significant for corrections vary with its prestige and the way it has been incorporated in the traditions of the campus. In some situations, students majoring in criminology or corrections or concentrating in one or the other of those fields while majoring in an established discipline, notably sociology, undergo two contrary experiences at the same time. In one direction, an aura of glamour is cast about them by fellow students. They are learning something about crime and criminals; they even know a few; they go to interesting places and study interesting subjects. Off the campus, they encounter correctional workers who supply them with job leads and encouraging information about corrections as a career. By these processes and by the help they receive from friendly faculty advisors, the students find themselves pointed toward an identifiable goal, and this enhances their sense of personal worth.

At the same time they experience discouragement by other students and other faculty. It is common to find faculty sorting enrollees into two categories — the good students and the corrections students — differentiated by criteria which have little to do with grade point averages. Mere interest in corrections is enough to brand the student as incompetent, regardless of his academic performance or courses he may complete outside the correctional sequence.

In time, of course, this tends to collapse. Good correctional students show that they are good at research, good in their grasp of social and behavioral theory, and competent in orthodoxies and heterodoxies at the same time. Hostile faculty weary of their opposition and move on to other areas. But meanwhile what of the student? In all likelihood he has undergone the destructive experience of not-too-subtle discrimination and prejudice. He is sometimes graded not on performance but on a stereotype. Contrary to the evidence, he is reported to be a low achiever; he finds himself denied admission to important elective courses; he may even be denied admission to a graduate program or, if admitted, required to complete additional courses to make up what are seen as deficiencies in his case but are not so regarded in others.

This is perhaps an extreme statement of the facts. As often as not, the trend is blunted by built-in limitations on faculty caprice and prejudice, but the trend is always there. It never really dies. It becomes dormant for varying intervals, only to reassert itself at some later date and in some other guise. This is probably the normal rhythm in any faculty, just as it is in any other large-scale organizational system.

Yet here, as with faculty hostility, respondents do not entirely agree that the status of the student in a significant program is quite as gloomy as just described. A catalog of the replies to that part of the present inquiry which concerned status problems among students shows a sharp division of opinion. Indeed, respondents occasionally fall on both sides of the division, thus providing further evidence of ambivalence over this entire subject.

Those who do not believe there are important status problems give the following reasons.

1. Judgments are made on the basis of the quality of the student's performance in research or experimentation in corrections, not on his affiliation with corrections per se.

2. Graduate students are respected by faculty.

3. Many graduate students are prominent professionals in corrections. Undergraduates are impressed by them. The result is high student morale, high academic performance, and widespread admiration for corrections students by most faculty.

4. Corrections students have not been identified as a special category owing essentially to the absence of sufficient faculty to develop a more specialized program than the one now offered.

One respondent said that to make sense out of the situation, a number of distinctions must be made:

> First, the distinction between organizational policy and the prejudice of particular individuals. In the first sense, we enjoy a high degree of support although it varies among academic departments. There are individuals who have gone to the extreme of demonstrating prejudice against corrections and persons associated with the field in the ways you suggest. But these individuals are not typical of faculty attitudes nor of the fundamental nature of the problem.
>
> Second, the distinction between academic issues in general and those exclusively related to corrections curricula . . . There are sociologists who assert sincerely that grasp of sociological concepts is all that is necessary. Although I disagree with this approach, I recognize that their opposition to my objectives stems from principles, rather than personality clashes per se . . .

This respondent also called attention to the distinction between deliberate opposition to and sheer ignorance of corrections. His statement is an indication that discrimination against students is not a solid substance like a rock but a semi-solid like mercury.

Respondents who feel that status problems are present, however disguised, say that:

1. Discrimination is present but is allayed by diversifying the student's courses so widely that he does not stand out as a member of a special category.

2. The corrections program is a dumping ground for students who are demonstrably incompetent academically.

3. Department members would really prefer to reduce the offerings in criminology in favor of more courses in sociological theory but are deterred from doing so because this would cut the number of enrollments and reduce staff.

4. The entry standards for corrections are so low that only the low-grade student is interested in the corrections program. He defines his field as inferior, he is defined by others as inferior, and he accepts this ascription. Said one respondent:

> There are some truly brilliant social science students who get attracted by the baffling problem of crime. There is also a body of students who entered corrections prior to their college education and go to college to enhance their career chances. Many of these lack the proper academic background and lower the esteem for the group in the academic setting.

This comment could just as well have appeared in the prior section but is included here because of the clear inference that the student who is not well-esteemed is the student who faces an uphill fight for a first-rate education and for an improved career prospect.

In bringing this part of the discussion to a close, reference should be made to a curious boomerang effect that occurs often enough so that every responsible program administrator must have encountered it at least once. It frequently happens that students gravitate toward corrections as commencement approaches with its signals that college is about over and the period of approved youthful dependency is soon to end. Where are the jobs, especially for the student who has been led by the hostile or uninformed faculty member to shun criminology and corrections sequences? In an expanding economy, he has of course many alternatives. But it is surprising to see how many students of this caliber now develop a spate of interest in job openings for probation officer, correctional counselor, or institutional worker. Not only do they apply, but they are hired in sufficient numbers to fulfill the prophecy that corrections will on the whole hire almost anyone. So the case for the special program significant for corrections is further weakened, since by its hiring practices corrections says that such a program really is not significant after all, that general courses are as good as any others, that special programs or concentrations are good but not that good.

The burden of these last observations is that status problems in degree programs are not confined to the campus. They are not generated wholly on the campus by the friends and enemies of corrections or the continuous strain between those who seek pure knowledge and those who seek to apply knowledge. Status problems on the campus relate to a bigger problem. One respondent saw it this way:

> The general topic of status problems within degree programs in criminology and corrections in itself reflects and possibly supports my notion that these problems exist because the field itself is perceived as having little if any status. You don't have a problem with status if you have status.

Another warned that corrections could not hope to attract students of marked quality in marked quantity until it clarified itself to itself.

> My impression is that more students would go into corrections if they were given wider opportunities. It seems to me that many students do not go into corrections because they simply do not know about it or are not clear as to what the career lines are that lead to a gainful occupation in corrections. Much of their problem is inherent in the fact that we have not clearly defined how training in corrections might be different from training in public administration, social work, sociology, or law. Since there are many specialized roles throughout the criminal justice system, corrections will have to do a better job of defining

specifically how corrections as a profession is a unique specialty rather than a specialty within some existing department or school.

Some Related Considerations

This review of a most vexing subject leads to no neat set of conclusions, no clear-cut indication as to how status affects manpower, no clear-cut indication of how to improve status or whether, if status were improved, the manpower problem would be alleviated. It is now generally agreed that crime and delinquency are not unitary phenomena. Corrections is not a unitary type of public service. There are all kinds and grades.

Perhaps programs significant for corrections need to distinguish more sharply between kinds of correctional service. Or is there a generic core which all correctional workers shall master?

Perhaps one of the critical aspects of corrections is that it does not really correct. When it does, it is too often an exception rather than the result of a well-reasoned, accepted, and transmissible method. Perhaps another is that, contrary to the Task Force Report on Corrections, the problem is that colleges and universities are surprisingly interested in corrections and really do want to mount significant programs. But corrections never really admits the campus to full partnership, never really makes an effort to comprehend campus capacities and limitations, never really meets the campus halfway.

Where, for example, are the scholarships and grants-in-aids, where is the released time for correctional workers to go back to school, where are the institutes to upgrade friendly faculty and to propagandize the hostile and the unfriendly? Do the personnel standards set out in the Task Force Report actually represent the considered view of the field, and if so what are their implications for significant degree programs?

As has so often been discovered in the past, the exploration of one problem lays bare many others. The present inquiry is thus consistent with history. It is also consistent with the present. The report of a survey conducted by Louis Harris and Associates for the Joint Commission emphasizes that corrections is an underchosen field essentially because it is not understood and because of the widespread perception of the field as unsuccessful and the correctional worker as unsuccessful in it.[5] One test of the maturity of corrections will be what it does about this report. Will it tear the report apart for methodological shortcomings? Will it launch a public relations campaign to offset failures with success stories? Will it redefine the word success? Will it restructure corrections in some way? Will it accept the findings but disagree with the interpretations?

Whatever it does, the Harris Report contains valuable clues to status problems in degree programs in corrections. Wherever the report says "adult," read "faculty." Wherever it says "teenager," read "student." The most telling of these clues is the dead weight of hopelessness that shows up in the replies — there is no hope in corrections, it really can't do much, and really it should do a great deal. This is perhaps an overweighting of the rehabilitative aspect of the correctional task when actually far more is imposed upon corrections than rehabilitation. But that is not how the correctional task is seen by others. Thus it is not surprising that, since rehabilitation is not clear and unmistakable, corrections is a cloudy and unappealing field both off the campus and on it.

It could be that here we have a *partial* clue to the riddle — and I underscore the world partial. It could be that part of the status problems of corrections are locked up in the term rehabilitation. Years ago we used to talk about penology. Now we talk about corrections, and we all feel somewhat better than we did under the old terminology. By a similar logic, something might happen if the term rehabilitation were dropped in favor of another concept or series of concepts which are more descriptive of what actually happens in corrections and indicate more clearly what else corrections is supposed to do besides rehabilitate.

It is true, of course, that a rose is still a rose no matter what it is called, as the Bard said long ago. But on the other hand verbal cues tend to trigger total and uncritical responses. Thus not so long ago, the word "communism" aroused an almost total response without regard to the kind of communism one was talking about. Today the word "peace" arouses the same kind of complete response, though in an opposite direction, but again generally without much regard to kinds and degrees of peace. It might be that the word "rehabilitation" has, like so many other verbal stimuli, acquired the same kind of capacity to arouse a total response and an undiscriminating cluster of expectations.

It is most unlikely that a mere change of words will solve all status problems. But on the other hand status problems are probably made worse than they should be by the employment of a word that puts corrections in the position of having to deliver something it cannot uniformly produce and which is not really a uniform part of its capacities or pretensions.

Finally, one might wonder how the status of degree programs is affected by the fact that vast numbers of offenders are not really dealt with in the literature of criminology and delinquency. The literature discusses acts of robbery, assault, career theft, drug abuse, homicide, and psychopathy among adult offenders, as well as law violations among juveniles, the phenomenon of ganging, sex misconduct, parent-child conflict, the school dropout, and kindred problems among the young. While it is true that such conduct bulks large in offender populations, it is difficult to understand why the literature overlooks so many other offender groups who may be even more numerous and perhaps equally as important (if not more so) for a comprehension of crime and the multiple tasks of corrections.

For example, what about non-support cases, many naive check forgers, the repetitive traffic violators? Are theoretical explanations for career theft adequate for the non-support defendant? Is juvenile delinquency principally a matter of law violation, or has its whole face changed to what in California is called "beyond control" behavior? Are theoretical explanations of juvenile delinquency adequate for youngsters whose behavior is clearly and objectively classified as beyond control? What about crime growing out of riots and civil disturbance? Do the usual theoretical explanations equip the practitioner to outline correctional measures for the looter with no prior arrest history, the sniper, the Black Panther, or the activist who resists arrest while opposing the campus recruitment efforts of a corporation identified somehow with the war in Vietnam?

Corrections suffers from its own credibility gap. The student leaves the established degree program often to find that he is dealing not with felons but misdemeanants, not with delinquents but dependents, not with juveniles but with adults – parents, teachers, the police, welfare workers, and other functionaires. Hence when asked a few years later, "What courses helped you function in your present job?" he is likely to answer "None" unless his course pattern has been buttressed with much beyond the conventional studies in criminology and delinquency. Hence too the adults and teenagers who were included in the Louis Harris sample probably had these kinds of offenders and these kinds of offenses in mind when they saw corrections in such shadowy and somber hues.

So this paper ends with a question. Might it be that some of the status problems of corrections stem from the perception that corrections does not really touch the more troublesome parts of the crime problem? If so, is this what leads to massive disenchantment with corrections both on and off the campus? Might it also be true that, however adequately corrections functions, the thoughtful student and the responsible citizen are less interested in it than in the capacity of the social order to produce offenders faster than any measure now known can correct them? Might it be that they simply cannot understand why corrections does not prevent antisociality or why research has thus far wholly failed to come up with a pill that can produce prosociality?

Issues of these sorts are perhaps not articulated by the campus critics of corrections. Many liberties have been taken with subsurface trends and tendencies in the responses in order to suggest the composition of this central core of negativism. It is a genuine tragedy to discover the great number of alert students who do overcome campus censure and academic debasement, who actually throng to "career days" in corrections eager to apply and to undergo their period of orientation, only to discover that their preparation gives them no advantage in competitive merit system exams, that there is no genuine preparation for a career in corrections, that few indeed are the programs that equip the graduate with either the mental set or the entry skills he needs to handle the kinds of offenders he actually finds in his caseload. So the eager young applicant – and their numbers are truly astounding – is in danger of returning to the campus in a short time as the jaded graduate, not always but often enough to entrench doubt about the correctional services.

There is no final resolution. But certainly status problems are a function of misunderstandings of what corrections is supposed to do. Certainly they are a function of semantic confusion over the word "rehabilitation." Certainly they are exacerbated by the vast army of offender types not touched upon in the basic literature. Cope with some of these and not only might corrections be improved but its status problems might diminish in the process.

REFERENCES

[1] The programs included were: (1) those at the following universities: Arizona, California, Washington, Maryland, Florida State, Pennsylvania, Rutgers, Southern California, and Southern Illinois; and (2) those at the following state and private colleges: Sacramento, Long Beach, Los Angeles, Sam Houston, San Francisco, San Diego, Fresno, San Jose, and Pepperdine. They are not further identified in this report, since confidentiality was assured in order to encourage maximum freedom of expression.

[2] The first is reported in Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement,* Source Book 1, Colleges and Universities (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1966). The second survey was made by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training and is reported in the present volume.

[3] President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 99-100.

[4] Note the passages on educational standards for personnel in *ibid.*, pp. 205-212. So far as this writer is aware, these are proposals which have been advanced by the Special Committee on Correctional Standards of the President's Crime Commission and have not yet been widely adopted by corrections except perhaps by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

[5] *The Public Looks at Crime and Corrections* (Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968), p. 23.

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE DISCUSSION

Following the presentation of the prepared papers given in this report, the participants had an opportunity to react to the presentations. Of the many important issues which emerged in this discussion, several seem to indicate problems of concern to all special programs in corrections and criminology.

Readiness of the Field for Change

Much of the content of criminology/corrections programs is predicated on the need for change in corrections. Essential to the future success of their graduates, therefore, is readiness for change on the part of personnel already working in the field of corrections, particularly correctional administrators.

E. K. Nelson, Jr., of the School of Public Administration at the University of Southern California, who is making a study of executive development in corrections for the Joint Commission, gave the seminar some of his preliminary findings.[1] His interviews with correctional administrators show clearly that they perceive themselves as afflicted with a large number and variety of problems. Beneath these stated problems, he said, there seems to be a preoccupation with the heavy burden of changing old and relatively ineffectual systems into something better.

One participant, who has wide contacts with administrators, said:

> I am very optimistic. I believe that these people do have a sincere desire for change. Their desire for improvement of the system was clearly exemplified at a recent 8-week course at the University of Wisconsin, which many of them attended.

He went on to express the view that the field today is roughly where education was about 1919. Public apathy or distrust – and the meagre appropriations made to corrections – have hitherto stymied any forward movement. The public feels differently today.

While there was disagreement on this point, it can be noted that the citizens in all parts of the country who were interviewed by Louis Harris and Associates on behalf of the Joint Commission said they would rather see federal funds spent for controlling juvenile delinquency than for any other purpose except education. Asked about general spending for improving prison programs and rehabilitation programs for offenders, a slight plurality was registered for increased funds.[2]

Another participant declared:

> As educators of students – both undergraduates and those we teach who are already in corrections – we have an obligation to help them understand the system and its limitations. We need to point out that changing the system is needed but it will take time to bring about the change. We can also point out that many things can be done within the system, or in spite of it,

> that are good for corrections. It's easy to use the system as an excuse for moving, easy to say, I can't do this because the system prevents me from doing it.

Theory and Skills of Corrections

Considerable discussion centered around the question of whether skills should be taught in criminology and corrections programs. No one disputed that theory is basic to an understanding of crime and corrections. However, there was great difference of opinion regarding the wisdom of teaching skills in undergraduate and graduate criminology and corrections programs.

Most participants rejected the plan of teaching how-to-do-it courses which could be left to orientation and on-the-job training provided by correctional agencies.

Confusion was expressed as to the meaning of "skills" and how inclusive the term is. Does it mean how to search a cell, write a social investigation, or conduct an interview? Or all three?

The view was presented that there are useful skills needed to modify criminal behavior. Has one learned skills when he is aware of psychological and sociological orientations to behavior? One participant posed this question:

> It is one thing to learn a theory explaining behavior in a certain way and quite another to attempt to make the theory operational by trying to change behavior. Is this what you mean by teaching skills, or is it merely an awareness of certain clues for possible action?

The questions of skills training appears to hinge upon the goals of the corrections or criminology programs. For some, the goals are to prepare practitioners. Other programs are liberal arts oriented and do not define their goal as training practitioners. Rather they provide general knowledge to broaden the perspectives and knowledge of students.

If skills are to be taught, what skills should they be? It is obvious that the skills needed for competent performance of any correctional job must be defined. One way to begin is by making a task analysis which will reveal the kinds of training needed.

In the discussion of a task analysis, an important concept emerged. It was suggested that there are two ways to write job descriptions. The conventional one is to list what a person is *required* to do. A second one would include looking at what he is *free* to do. The inevitable question is: How do you train for the second? One participant asked:

> What is a probation counselor free to do on his job and how do you train for that area of discretion? That is much more important than a job description that says you will make a count at such and such an hour and it must be accurate. There is an area of freedom for every worker, and that is more important than the prescribed job.

Another question raised was about where skills should be taught. Should this be a part of a college program or should skills be learned through internships or in-service training? The difference of opinion over whether skills should be taught in university programs was not resolved. Most participants believed that students would develop skills primarily through field work experience.

Location of the Program within the University

In posing the question about the location of the programs within the university, a participant asked:

> Is there any difference between the assumptions underlying the location of a corrections program in a sociology department as opposed to those which place it in a social welfare department, or in a criminal justice school, or out in the street? Is there any difference in assumptions underlying its location, or is it a question of expediency?

There were various responses to this question. Most participants agreed that it was a combination of both expediency and careful study. One participant stated that he had worked five years on a committee to consider a criminal justice program for the university. When the committee faced the question of where it should be housed, the answer was based on expediency: It should be placed wherever it could find a receptive home.

Another participant remarked:

> If you make a study of the degree programs in the United States and Canada to determine their location – in a department, as an autonomous academic department, as an institute, a center, or a school – I think you will find that the location is integrally related to the traditions and the customs and the power structure of the university.

Standards and the Academic Level of Programs

A basic issue in filling correctional positions is the practice which locks people out of certain jobs because they do not have certain educational credentials. Standards established for the education required of certain correctional workers are not relevant to the job to be done. Even the evolution of these standards is impossible to track. Standards get into the literature and are perpetrated. Enforcing standards which list the preferred degree seems to serve notice that those not holding that degree are second best. Increasingly, there is opposition to a specific degree as *the* educational requirement for a position in corrections.

A standard calling for a graduate degree has little relevance for existing criminology and corrections programs. Most of these programs have a strong base at the undergraduate level but produce few graduate students. The Joint Commission survey indicates that in 1967 only 89 students were graduated with advanced degrees from the programs covered, and this was most of them. Another Commission survey shows that only 15 percent of all persons now working in rehabilitation and training positions have graduate degrees. Thus the standard set for such positions — a master's degree in social work, sociology, or other behavioral science — is either unrelated to manpower realities or is not observed in practice by most agencies. This finding has an important message for the future of criminology and corrections programs. Participants sensed the futility of expending disproportionate efforts on graduate programs at the expense of undergraduate ones, so far as training most correctional practitioners is concerned.

Attracting Desirable Students

There is concern among some faculty that corrections programs may not attract the bright students. The reasons given are many — notably the belief that bright students reject vocationally tagged degrees and prefer liberal arts education to practitioner-oriented studies.

Several participants expressed the view that the image of correctional work should be positive and attractive to such students, who could offer a great deal to the field. As a public service in a democracy, corrections provides a challenge unmatched in many other careers. The field needs change, and these students could provide imagination, impetus, and direction for new programs. One participant stated:

> When I think of the kids at Columbia who are tearing it apart right now and I think of the kids I went to school with, they are very different people. Students today are much more militant, much more active. I don't think they are very clear in what they are saying many times, but they have an antagonism toward much of the university world, its unrelatedness, its overcrowdedness, its alienation and the lack of contact between the professor and their students.
>
> I think the university must cope with this, and in doing so, maybe one of the things that will result is teaching, support, and status for some of the applied degrees as well as realistic courses of study.

Leadership Potentials of Young Professors

It was suggested that some of the most important people who are providing and will provide high-quality education for correctional work were not at the seminar. These are the young professors who will be the ones to develop new programs, innovate and experiment with the curriculum, and forge meaningful relationships between the institutions of higher education and corrections.

Financial Support for Corrections/Criminology Programs

Original plans for the seminar included a presentation on obtaining needed support, including financial support for the development of corrections/criminology programs, to be given by Joseph Lohman, dean of the School of Criminology at the University of California, Berkeley. When Dean Lohman died shortly before the seminar opened, it was possible to arrange only brief coverage of sources of financial support.

Arnold Hopkins, of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance in the U.S. Department of Justice, described that agency's grant program to aid police science programs. OLEA has been cautious about funding correctional degree programs because of apparent lack of consensus on content of the curriculum. Bearing in mind that the Joint Commission is studying criminology/corrections programs, OLEA has waited for results of the study before getting into a funding program in depth.

The Safe Streets Act as passed by the Congress authorizes grants to aid the training of law enforcement personnel. In defining these personnel, the Act includes persons employed in corrections.

In the discussion which followed it was pointed out that grants are tenuous grounds for building a corrections-related degree program. It is essential that there be a commitment by the university to fund the program after the grant money runs out. Some programs have secured such commitments. Some have secured the help of correctional leaders in seeking commitments from the legislature.

An Association of Criminology and Corrections Programs

The participants of the seminar agreed that an ad hoc committee should be appointed to develop an association of schools offering criminology and corrections. The association would provide a needed forum for an exchange of ideas and experiences on these programs. An end result could be an agreement on standards for these programs and eventual accreditation.

An ad hoc committee was appointed to plan the association. Joint Commission staff will assist in its operation. A meeting is planned for fall, 1968.

REFERENCES

[1] Dr. Nelson's report will be published by the Joint Commission as one of the supplements to its final report.

[2] *The Public Looks at Crime and Corrections* (Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968), p. 10.

APPENDIX

The following tables present information reported by 63 institutions offering programs or courses in corrections or criminology in the academic year 1967-68. This information was collected through a survey conducted by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training which is reported above.

Methodology is described on pp. 10-11.

Definitions

"Established programs" — those offering a formally approved specialization or degree in criminology or corrections which by 1967-68 had been in existence long enough to have graduated students.

"New programs" — those offering a formally recognized specialization or degree in criminology or corrections which had not been in existence long enough to have graduated students or, if they had, had graduated students in numbers far short of their intended capacity. intended capacity.

"Non-degree programs" — those academic departments which offered one or more courses in criminology or corrections, without a specialization of special degree.

Table 1.—TYPE OF AWARDS GRANTED IN PROGRAMS OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	None or unknown	Undergraduate only			Undergraduate and graduate programs								Graduate only	
			S	B	C and B	S	C and M	S and M	B and M	C, B and M	S, M and D	B, M and D	C, B, M and D	M and D	D
Total	63	21	8	4	1	12	1	3	3	2	1	3	1	1	2
Established	33	–	5	3	–	12	1	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	–
Criminology	4	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1	1	–	–
Sociology	21	–	4	–	–	11	–	2	–	1	–	2	–	1	–
Other	8	–	1	2	–	1	1	–	1	1	1	–	–	–	–
New	10	1	3	1	1	–	–	1	1	–	–	–	–	–	2
Non-degree	20	20	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Key: S = Specialization
B = Bachelor's
C = Certificate (for non-degree students)
M = Master's
D = Doctor's

Table 2.—AREAS OF BEST PREPARATION BY PROGRAMS OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT
(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Areas of best preparation						
	Probation	Parole	Institution custody	Institution treatment	Administration	Research	College teaching
Total	18	1	6	4	5	3	3
Established	13	–	4	1	4	2	3
Criminology	2	–	–	–	–	1	–
Sociology	10	–	3	1	1	1	3
Other	1	–	1	–	3	–	–
New	3	–	–	2	–	1	–
Non-degree	2	1	2	1	1	–	–

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Established	13	–	4	1	4	2	3
Undergraduate	4	–	2	1	–	–	–
Combined	9	–	2	–	4	2	3
Graduate	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Table 3.—UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE CREDIT HOURS OFFERED IN CRIMINOLOGY OR CORRECTIONS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Undergraduate hours							Graduate hours						
		None or un-known	1-11	12-23	24-35	36-47	48-99	100+	None or un-known	1-11	12-23	24-35	36-47	48-99	100+
Total	63	5	22	21	3	3	5	4	18	16	16	4	5	3	1
Established	33	1	4	16	3	2	3	4	5	4	13	3	5	2	1
Criminology	4	–	–	–	–	1	1	2	1	–	–	–	1	1	1
Sociology	21	–	3	13	3	1	–	1	2	2	12	2	2	1	–
Other	8	1	1	3	–	–	2	1	2	2	1	1	2	–	–
New	10	3	2	2	–	1	2	–	6	2	–	1	–	1	–
Non-degree	20	1	16	3	–	–	–	–	7	10	3	–	–	–	–

—BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Established	33	1	4	16	3	2	3	4	5	4	13	3	5	2	1
Undergraduate	8	–	1	5	–	–	2	–	5	3	–	–	–	–	–
Combined	24	1	2	11	3	2	1	4	–	1	13	3	4	2	1
Graduate	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–

Table 4.—UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN CRIMINOLOGY OR CORRECTIONS COURSES, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Undergraduate enrollment							Graduate enrollment						
		Total under-gradu-ate 1/	Schools with enrollment of –						Total gradu-ate 1/	Schools with enrollment of –					
			None or un-known	1-49	50-99	100-199	200-299	300+		None or un-known	1-9	10-19	20-29	30-49	50+
Total	63	12,279	8	9	16	9	14	7	1,262	22	7	15	6	7	6
Established	33	9,413	2	4	8	4	9	6	1,006	9	1	9	5	4	5
Criminology	4	1,379	–	–	1	–	1	2	227	1	–	–	–	1	2
Sociology	21	5,642	1	3	3	3	8	3	411	5	1	8	4	2	1
Other	8	2,392	1	1	4	1	–	1	368	3	–	1	1	1	2
New	10	1,168	3	–	2	3	2	–	54	6	–	2	–	2	–
Non-degree	20	1,698	3	5	6	2	3	1	202	7	6	4	1	1	1

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Number of schools	Total under-gradu-ate 1/	None or un-known	1-49	50-99	100-199	200-299	300+	Total gradu-ate 1/	None or un-known	1-9	10-19	20-29	30-49	50+
Established	33	9,413	2	4	8	4	9	6	1,006	9	1	9	5	4	5
Undergraduate	8	1,087	–	1	3	2	1	1	40	6	–	–	2	–	–
Combined	24	8,076	2	3	5	2	7	5	941	3	1	9	2	4	5
Graduate	1	250	–	–	–	–	1	–	25	–	–	–	1	–	–

1/ Totals are course enrollment figures and may count the same students more than once.

Table 5.—UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE DEGREE AWARDS IN CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1966-67)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Undergraduate degrees							Graduate degrees					
		Total undergraduate	Schools graduating –						Total graduate	Schools graduating –				
			None or unknown	1-9	10-19	20-49	50-99	100+		None or unknown	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19
Total	63	640	40	5	7	6	3	2	89	48	8	3	3	1
Established	33	619	12	4	7	5	3	2	88	19	7	3	3	1
Criminology	4	211	–	–	1	1	1	1	35	1	1	–	1	1
Sociology	21	310	10	1	5	3	1	1	40	14	3	2	2	–
Other	8	98	2	3	1	1	1	–	13	4	3	1	–	–
New	10	21	8	1	–	1	–	–	1	9	1	–	–	–
Non-degree	20	–	20	–	–	–	–	–	–	20	–	–	–	–

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Number of schools	Total undergraduate	None or unknown	1-9	10-19	20-49	50-99	100+	Total graduate	None or unknown	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19
Established	33	619	12	4	7	5	3	2	88	19	7	3	3	1
Undergraduate	8	173	1	2	1	2	2	–	–	8	–	–	–	–
Combined	24	446	10	2	6	3	1	2	82	11	7	2	3	1
Graduate	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	6	–	–	1	–	–

Table 6.—UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE FIELD EXPERIENCE, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools having field experience		Type of field experience and undergraduate students involved						Type of field experience and graduate students involved					
		Number	Percent of total	Tours and visits	Place-ment	Summer field	Work-study	Intern-ships	Other	Tours and visits	Place-ment	Summer field	Work-study	Intern-ships	Other
Total	63	39	61.9	3,355	456	310	82	36	221	151	62	19	27	13	34
Established	33	25	75.8	2,865	410	302	79	32	205	116	57	18	26	10	20
Criminology	4	4	100.0	20	36	87	25	5	–	5	36	9	4	–	–
Sociology	21	16	76.2	2,735	307	165	33	24	205	111	21	9	22	6	20
Other	8	5	62.5	110	67	50	21	3	–	–	–	–	–	4	–
New	10	6	60.0	280	6	4	–	3	–	10	3	1	–	2	2
Non-degree	20	8	40.0	210	40	4	3	1	16	25	2	–	1	1	12

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Number	Percent of total	Tours and visits	Place-ment	Summer field	Work-study	Intern-ships	Other	Tours and visits	Place-ment	Summer field	Work-study	Intern-ships	Other
Established	33	25	75.8	2,865	410	302	79	32	205	116	57	18	26	10	20
Undergraduate	8	6	75.0	350	47	40	22	5	100	–	–	–	–	–	–
Combined	24	18	75.0	2,415	363	262	57	27	105	116	57	18	23	10	20
Graduate	1	1	100.0	100	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	–

Table 7.—AGENCIES AND FACILITIES USED FOR FIELD EXPERIENCE, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Agencies and facilities used					
		Probation	Parole	Institution	Halfway houses	Courts	Other
Total	63	30	26	33	8	14	11
Established	33	22	20	23	6	12	8
Criminology	4	4	4	4	3	2	1
Sociology	21	14	12	14	2	6	5
Other	8	4	4	5	1	4	2
New	10	4	3	6	1	1	2
Non-degree	20	4	3	4	1	1	1

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Number of schools	Probation	Parole	Institution	Halfway houses	Courts	Other
Established	33	22	20	23	6	12	8
Undergraduate	8	5	4	5	2	2	–
Combined	24	16	16	18	4	10	7
Graduate	1	1	–	–	–	–	1

Table 8.—STUDENTS RECEIVING FINANCIAL SUPPORT, FORMS OF SUPPORT, AND SOURCE OF FUNDS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools reporting support		Total student enrollment [1]	Students receiving support		Forms of support					Source of Funds [2]		
		Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total	Assistantships	Fellowships	Work-study	Stipends	Other	Federal	State	Other
Total	63	25	39.7	13,541	358	2.7	98	96	84	25	45	168	123	57
Established	33	20	60.6	10,419	316	3.0	91	92	82	25	26	144	115	57
Criminology	4	4	100.0	1,606	133	8.2	36	36	30	5	26	66	38	29
Sociology	21	12	57.1	6,053	109	1.8	31	34	41	3	–	37	56	16
Other	8	4	50.0	2,760	74	2.7	24	22	11	17	–	41	21	12
New	10	5	50.0	1,222	32	2.6	7	4	2	–	19	24	8	–
Non-degree	20	–	–	1,900	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools reporting support		Total student enrollment [1]	Students receiving support		Forms of support					Source of Funds [2]		
		Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total	Assistantships	Fellowships	Work-study	Stipends	Other	Federal	State	Other
Established	33	20	60.6	10,419	316	3.0	91	92	82	25	26	144	115	57
Undergraduate	8	3	37.5	1,127	32	2.8	6	–	22	4	–	20	8	4
Combined	24	16	66.7	9,017	271	3.0	80	84	60	21	26	116	107	48
Graduate	1	1	100.0	275	13	4.7	5	8	–	–	–	8	–	5

[1] Undergraduate and graduate course enrollments.

[2] Forty-four students from nine schools were reported as receiving financial support directly through a correctional agency.

Table 9.—PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WITH PRIOR WORK EXPERIENCE IN CORRECTIONS AND WITH CAREER INTERESTS IN CORRECTIONS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Percentage with prior work experience					Percentage with career interests				
		None or unknown	Under 25	25-49	50-74	75-100	None or unknown	Under 25	25-49	50-74	75-100
Total	63	24	30	5	1	3	18	19	10	4	12
Established	33	6	20	4	1	2	3	12	4	2	12
Criminology	4	1	2	1	–	–	–	1	1	–	2
Sociology	21	5	12	3	1	–	2	10	2	1	6
Other	8	–	6	–	–	2	1	1	1	1	4
New	10	4	4	1	–	1	4	1	3	2	–
Non-degree	20	14	6	–	–	–	11	6	3	–	–

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Number of schools	Percentage with prior work experience					Percentage with career interests				
		None or unknown	Under 25	25-49	50-74	75-100	None or unknown	Under 25	25-49	50-74	75-100
Established	33	6	20	4	1	2	3	12	4	2	12
Undergraduate	8	3	5	–	–	–	1	4	1	1	1
Combined	24	3	14	4	1	2	2	7	3	1	11
Graduate	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–

Table 10.—NUMBER OF FACULTY AND FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN OFF-CAMPUS CORRECTIONAL ACTIVITIES, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Faculty				Schools reporting faculty involvement in –							
		Full-time		Part-time		Research projects	Consultation	In-service training at correctional setting	Extension work	Civil service exam board	Part-time employment correctional job	Parole or probation board member	Other
		Number	Mean per school	Number	Mean per school								
Total	63	188	3.0	91	1.4	42	39	25	24	10	9	2	10
Established	33	132	4.0	64	1.9	29	25	17	20	9	7	2	7
Criminology	4	30	7.5	26	6.5	4	4	2	3	3	2	–	–
Sociology	21	68	3.2	17	.8	18	18	11	11	3	2	–	6
Other	8	34	4.3	21	2.6	7	3	4	6	3	3	2	1
New	10	25	2.5	19	1.9	5	6	3	2	1	–	–	2
Non-degree	20	31	1.6	8	.4	8	8	5	2	–	2	–	1
–BY PROGRAM LEVEL													
Established	33	132	4.0	64	1.9	29	25	17	20	9	7	2	7
Undergraduate	8	25	3.1	11	1.4	6	6	2	2	2	2	–	1
Combined	24	102	4.3	51	2.1	22	18	14	18	7	5	2	6
Graduate	1	5	5.0	2	2.0	1	1	1	–	–	–	–	–

Table 11.—JOB PLACEMENTS OF RECIPIENTS OF UNDERGRADUATE DEGREES, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT
(Academic Year 1966-67)

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools reporting placements		Total under-graduate degrees awarded	Placements reported		Type of employment								
		Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total	Probation	Parole	Institution treatment	Institution custody	Administration	Research	College teaching	Other[1]	Not indicated[2]
Total	63	14	22.2	640	477	74.5	93	37	57	42	1	3	6	64	174
Established	33	14	42.4	619	477	77.1	93	37	57	42	1	3	6	64	174
Criminology	4	4	100.0	211	211	100.0	27	22	20	–	1	–	2	64	75
Sociology	21	8	38.1	310	260	83.9	64	13	37	42	–	3	4	–	97
Other	8	2	25.0	98	6	6.1	2	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
New	10	–	–	21	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Non-degree	20	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

—BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools reporting placements: Number	Schools reporting placements: Percent of total	Total under-graduate degrees awarded	Placements reported: Number	Placements reported: Percent of total	Probation	Parole	Institution treatment	Institution custody	Administration	Research	College teaching	Other[1]	Not indicated[2]
Established	33	14	42.4	619	477	77.1	93	37	57	42	1	3	6	64	174
Undergraduate	8	3	37.5	173	111	64.2	23	3	15	–	–	–	–	10	60
Combined	24	11	45.8	446	366	82.1	70	34	42	42	1	3	6	54	114
Graduate	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

[1] Mostly in law enforcement.

[2] Unknown or non-correctional employment.

Table 12.—JOB PLACEMENTS OF RECIPIENTS OF GRADUATE DEGREES, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1966-67)

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools reporting placements		Total graduate degrees awarded	Placements reported		Type of employment								
		Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total	Probation	Parole	Institution treatment	Institution custody	Administration	Research	College teaching	Other[1]	Not indicated[2]
Total	63	14	22.2	89	66	74.2	15	1	7	4	5	5	16	8	5
Established	33	14	42.4	88	66	75.0	15	1	7	4	5	5	16	8	5
Criminology	4	4	100.0	35	35	100.0	6	1	3	–	2	4	9	7	3
Sociology	21	8	38.1	40	26	65.0	9	–	3	3	2	1	6	–	2
Other	8	2	25.0	13	5	38.5	–	–	1	1	1	–	1	1	–
New	10	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Non-degree	20	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Total number of schools	Schools reporting placements: Number	Schools reporting placements: Percent of total	Total graduate degrees awarded	Placements reported: Number	Placements reported: Percent of total	Probation	Parole	Institution treatment	Institution custody	Administration	Research	College teaching	Other[1]	Not indicated[2]
Established	33	14	42.4	88	66	75.0	15	1	7	4	5	5	16	8	5
Undergraduate	8	3	37.5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Combined	24	11	45.8	82	66	80.5	15	1	7	4	5	5	16	8	5
Graduate	1	–	–	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

[1] Mostly in law enforcement.

[2] Unknown or non-correctional employment.

Table 13.—MOST DIFFICULT FACTORS REPORTED AS AFFECTING EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES OF GRADUATES OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS, BY PROGRAM EMPHASIS

(Academic Year 1966-67)

Program emphasis*	Number of schools	Schools reporting as most difficult factors affecting employment opportunities						
		Lack of experience	Civil service exams	Requirements for advanced degrees	Age	Lack of job opportunities	Residence requirements	Other and not indicated
Total	49[1]	8	8[2]	5	3	4	2	19
Probation/Parole	15	2	–	4	2	3	–	4[3]
Treatment/Community and Institution	6	–	2	1	1	–	–	2
Community and Custody	4	–	4	–	–	–	–	–
Institution	3	1	1	–	–	–	1	–
Administration	6	3	–	–	–	–	1	2[4]
University Teaching	6	2	–	–	–	1	–	3
Other	9	–	1	–	–	–	–	8

*Based upon the questionnaire item in which respondents were asked to rank in order the areas of corrections for which their students were best prepared, the following types were established:

Probation/Parole: Those programs which listed probation and parole as the first two areas of best preparation.

Treatment/Community and Institution: Those programs which listed institutional treatment as one choice and either probation or parole as another choice among the first two areas of best preparation.

Community and Custody: Those programs which listed institutional custody as one choice and either probation or parole as another choice among the first two areas of best preparation.

Institution: Those programs which listed institution treatment and institution custody as the first two areas of best preparation.

Administration: Those programs which listed administration among the first two choices.

University Teaching: Those programs which listed university teaching among the first two choices.

[1] Includes all "Established" and "New" programs plus six "Non-Degree" programs.

[2] Of the eight programs citing Civil Service Exams as the most difficult factor facing graduates, six were in California and two in Illinois.

[3] Requirement for degree in social work, preference for psychology and social work and two "not indicated."

[4] Low pay and one "not indicated."

Table 14.—MOST DIFFICULT FACTORS REPORTED AS AFFECTING EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES OF GRADUATES OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1966-67)

Program status and department	Schools reporting as most difficult factors affecting employment opportunities[1]					
	Lack of experience	Civil service exams	Requirements for advanced degrees	Age	Lack of opportunities	Residence requirements
Total	9	8	5	4	4	2
Established	6	6	2	3	3	1
Criminology	1	–	–	1	1	–
Sociology	4	4	1	2	2	1
Other	1	2	1	–	–	–
New	1	–	2	1	–	–
Non-degree	2	2	1	–	1	1
–BY PROGRAM LEVEL						
Established	6	6	2	3	3	1
Undergraduate	2	3	1	1	1	–
Combined	4	3	1	2	2	1
Graduate	–	–	–	–	–	–

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[1] Besides the factors listed, several others were mentioned by respondents. Two cited a requirement for degrees in social work as the most serious barrier facing their graduates, while a third said the most serious barrier was poor pay.

Table 15.—ATTITUDE OF CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS AND PRESTIGE OF PROGRAMS AMONG STUDENT BODY AND FACULTY OF EMPLOYMENT IN FIELD, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Attitude of correctional administrators					Prestige among student body				Prestige among faculty			
		Not indicated	Somewhat negative	Neutral or indifferent	Somewhat positive	Very positive	Unknown or not indicated	Not prestigious	Somewhat prestigious	Very prestigious	Unknown or not indicated	Not prestigious	Somewhat prestigious	Very prestigious
Total	63	13	3	5	21	21	18	21	21	3	18	24	18	3
Established	33	2	2	4	10	15	5	12	14	2	5	15	11	2
Criminology	4	–	–	–	1	3	–	1	3	–	–	1	3	–
Sociology	21	–	1	4	6	10	2	9	9	1	2	13	4	2
Other	8	2	1	–	3	2	3	2	2	1	3	1	4	–
New	10	3	1	–	3	3	4	2	4	–	5	2	3	–
Non-degree	20	8	–	1	8	3	9	7	3	1	8	7	4	1

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Established	33	2	2	4	10	15	5	12	14	2	5	15	11	2
Undergraduate	8	1	1	1	2	3	1	4	2	1	1	5	2	–
Combined	24	1	1	3	7	12	4	8	11	1	4	10	8	2
Graduate	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–

Table 16.—CALIBER OF STUDENTS ATTRACTED AND PROGRAM EMPHASIS OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS, BY PROGRAM STATUS AND DEPARTMENT

(Academic Year 1967-68)

Program status and department	Number of schools	Caliber of students			Program emphasis		
		Unknown or not indicated	Average	Above average	Not indicated	Theory	Theory and skills
Total	63	19	34	10	11	22	30
Established	33	7	19	7	3	9	21
Criminology	4	–	3	1	–	2	2
Sociology	21	6	10	5	2	5	14
Other	8	1	6	1	1	2	5
New	10	2	6	2	3	3	4
Non-degree	20	10	9	1	5	10	5

–BY PROGRAM LEVEL

Program status and department	Number of schools	Unknown or not indicated	Average	Above average	Not indicated	Theory	Theory and skills
Established	33	7	19	7	3	9	21
Undergraduate	8	1	7	–	–	4	4
Combined	24	6	12	6	3	5	16
Graduate	1	–	–	1	–	–	1

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